



HISTORY

of our

AMERICAN NEIGHBORS

CORDIER • ROBERT • MARTIN

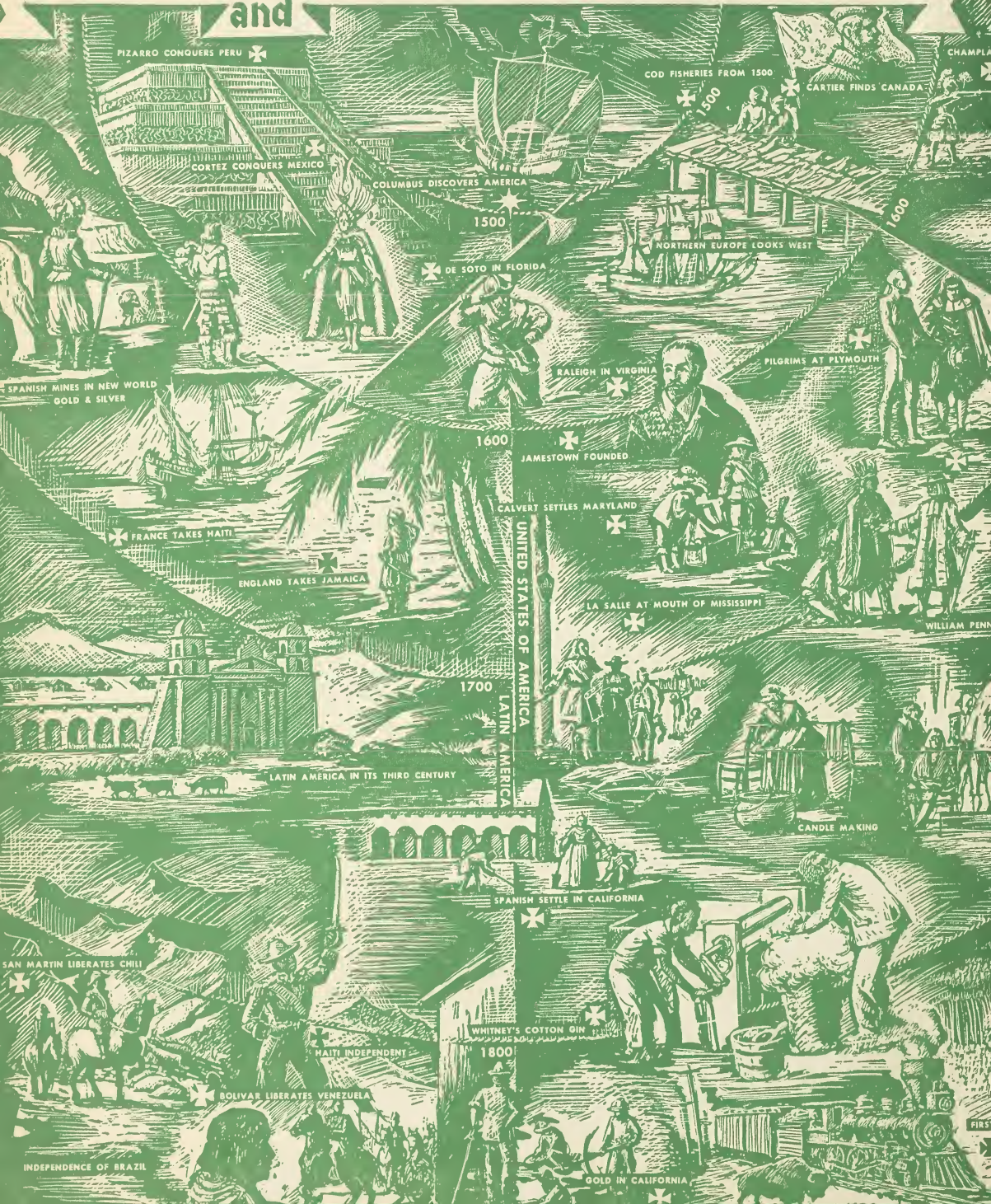


CURRICULUM

CANADA

OUR AMERICAN NEIGHBORS

and



PIZARRO CONQUERS PERU

CORTEZ CONQUERS MEXICO

COLUMBUS DISCOVERS AMERICA

COD FISHERIES FROM 1500

CARTIER FINDS CANADA

1500

DE SOTO IN FLORIDA

NORTHERN EUROPE LOOKS WEST

RALEIGH IN VIRGINIA

PILGRIMS AT PLYMOUTH

1600

JAMESTOWN FOUNDED

CALVERT SETTLES MARYLAND

FRANCE TAKES HAITI

ENGLAND TAKES JAMAICA

LA SALLE AT MOUTH OF MISSISSIPPI

WILLIAM PENN

1700

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
LATIN AMERICA

LATIN AMERICA IN ITS THIRD CENTURY

SPANISH SETTLE IN CALIFORNIA

CANDLE MAKING

WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

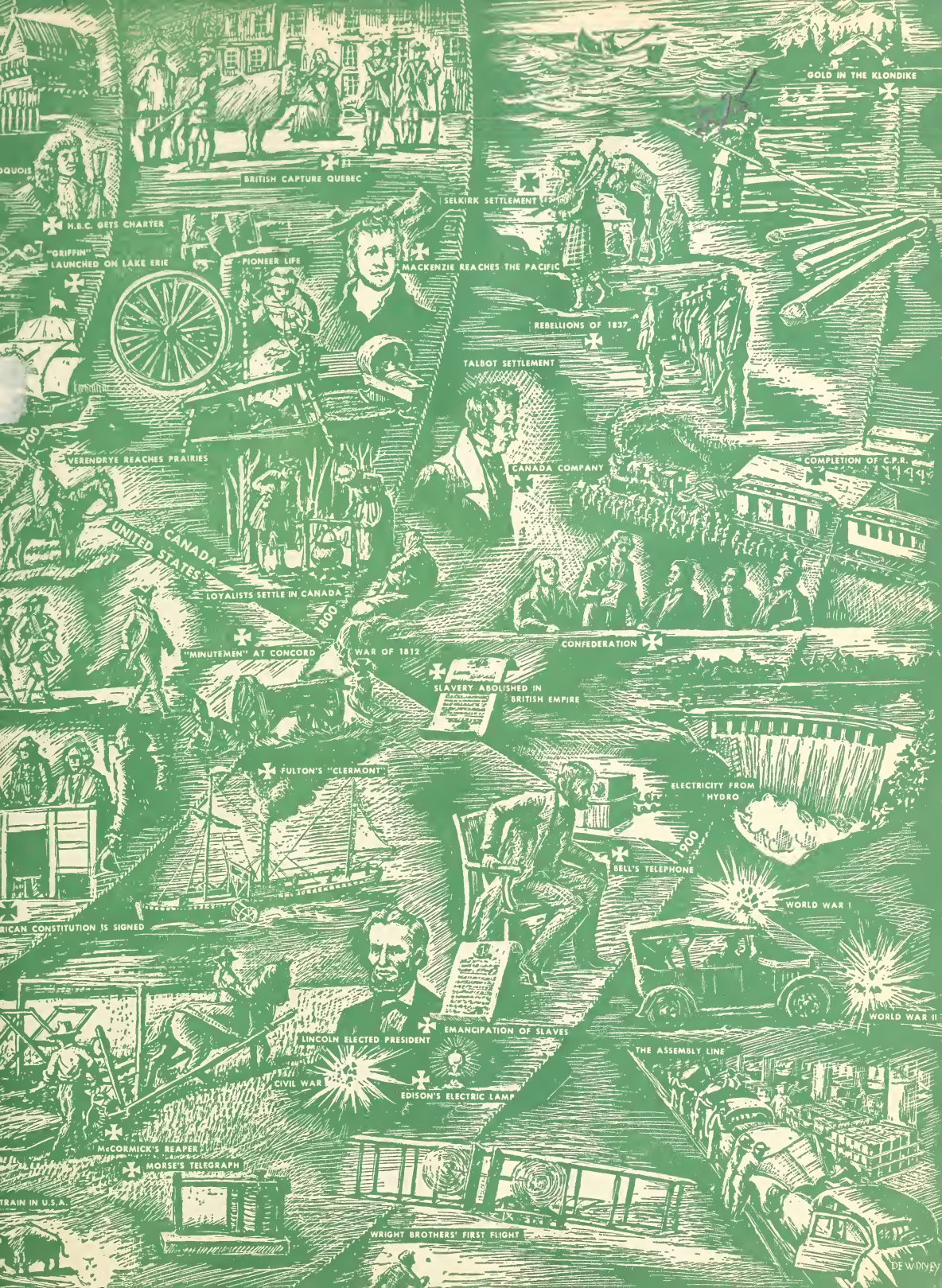
1800

HAITI INDEPENDENT

BOLIVAR LIBERATES VENEZUELA

GOLD IN CALIFORNIA

INDEPENDENCE OF BRAZIL



GOLD IN THE KLONDIKE

1492

COLUMBUS

H.B.C. GETS CHARTER

"GRIFFIN" LAUNCHED ON LAKE ERIE

BRITISH CAPTURE QUEBEC

SELKIRK SETTLEMENT

MACKENZIE REACHES THE PACIFIC

REBELLIONS OF 1837

TALBOT SETTLEMENT

CANADA COMPANY

COMPLETION OF C.P.R.

VERENDRYE REACHES PRAIRIES

UNITED STATES
CANADA

LOYALISTS SETTLE IN CANADA

"MINUTEMEN" AT CONCORD

WAR OF 1812

CONFEDERATION

SLAVERY ABOLISHED IN
BRITISH EMPIRE

FULTON'S "CLERMONT"

ELECTRICITY FROM
HYDRO

BELL'S TELEPHONE

WORLD WAR I

WORLD WAR II

AMERICAN CONSTITUTION IS SIGNED

LINCOLN ELECTED PRESIDENT

EMANCIPATION OF SLAVES

CIVIL WAR

EDISON'S ELECTRIC LAMP

THE ASSEMBLY LINE

MCCORMICK'S REAPER

MORSE'S TELEGRAPH

WRIGHT BROTHERS' FIRST FLIGHT

RAILROAD TRAIN IN U.S.A.

DE WIDNY

E. T. T. P.

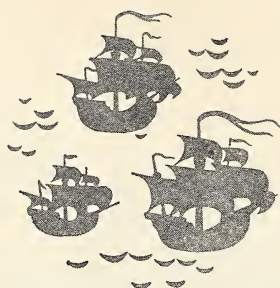
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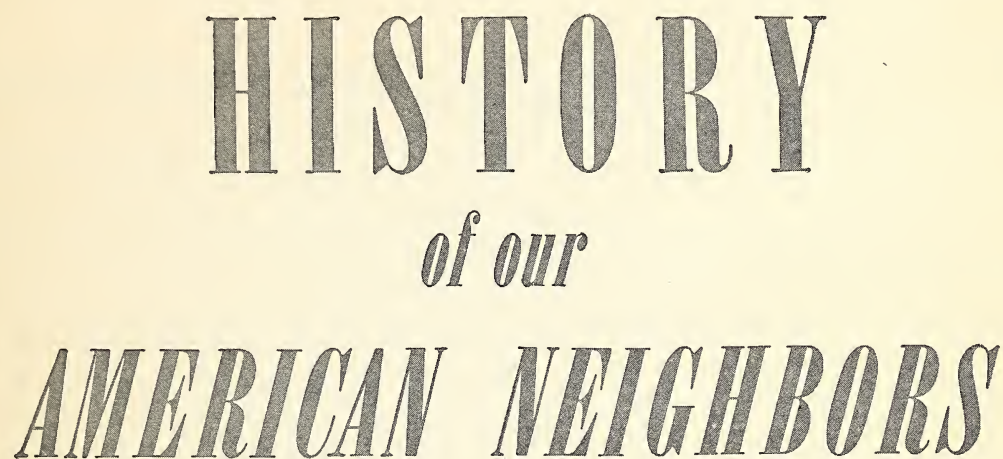
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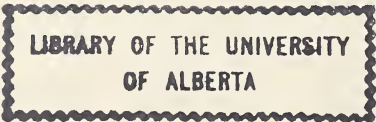
T. H. W. MARTIN



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The Contents

	PAGE
To the Teacher	v

THE BEGINNING OF THE NEW WORLD—AMERICA

What This Book Is About	2
The World before the Time of Columbus	4
The Finding of a New World beyond the Ocean	9
What Early Explorers Learned about North America	26

THE FOUNDING OF COLONIES IN THE NEW WORLD

How People Lived in the Earliest Settlements	40
Shall Northern Europe Have a Share in the New World?	45
New Colonists Find Hardships in the Americas	49

HOW PEOPLE LIVED IN THE GROWING COLONIES

Changing Times in the Colonies in America	64
Successful Settlements Spread in America	67
The Early Colonists Learn How to Live in America	71
Men from Four Countries Fill In the Map of North America	83
Where the English and the French Claims Met	92
Living in the English Colonies in Late Colonial Days	96

HOW THE THIRTEEN COLONIES BECAME A NEW NATION

A Colonist Looks at North America in 1763	108
Just before the Revolution in the American Colonies	110
The Revolutionary War Brings Independence	119
“To Form a More Perfect Union” of the States	126

GREAT CHANGES COME TO THE YOUNG NATION

	PAGE
A Rising Nation	132
The First Pioneers Move into the Wilderness	135
A Land of Farms Replaces the Frontier in the Old West	145
As the Country Grows, Its Parts Become Different	154
A New West Is Won for the United States	161
The Country Breaks Apart and Is Reunited	164

SETTLEMENT OF THE GREAT WEST

When Did the First Settlers Come to the West?	170
Spaniards Explore and Settle the Southwest	172
Traders Find Their Way to the West	181
Settlers, Trappers, and Missionaries Move beyond the Frontier	188
The Last Frontier of Settlement in the West	205

HISTORY STORIES OF LATIN AMERICAN PEOPLES

South America's Long Struggle for Freedom	216
Tales of the West Indies	226

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

Friendly Neighbors	232
The Alaska Boundary Dispute	233
The International Joint Commission	234
Brothers in Arms	235

NEW WAYS OF LIVING

The Greatest Change of All	238
The Great Need for New Ways of Farming	241
The World We Live In Has Changed Greatly	246
New Ways of Manufacturing Are Developed	259
A Happier and a Healthier Life for All	264

<i>Interesting Books to Read</i>	<i>269</i>
<i>Index and Pronouncing Vocabulary</i>	<i>271</i>

To the Teacher

Viewpoint. This book, like its companion volume, *Geography of Our American Neighbors*, is published for the use of young Canadians. It tells a simple story—how Europeans came to the other parts of the Americas, how they met the new circumstances of their lives, and how they grew to become nations. What happened in the rest of America profoundly affected events in Canada. To a greater extent than we often care to admit, our future is bound up with that of the United States, as it is with that of Great Britain and the Commonwealth. Throughout the book the interweaving of our history with that of our neighbors is presented in a manner intended to promote a realization of our common destiny and of the way in which differing backgrounds of history and environment lead people to different ways of life. This story is not the complete history of the United States and Latin America. Nor is it intended to be. It presents to young Canadians the essential qualities of these nations which are the keys to our understanding of their convictions, their ideals, and their aspirations.

It is said that “history teaches.” Nothing could be further from the truth or more misleading. The evidence lies in the notorious lack of understanding of history among our people. We have been “letting history teach us” and we have learned very little. Misled by this false dictum, we have put masses of bare historical “facts” into our books and our teaching, with attention focused on “historical details.” Concern for the abilities and interests of children has been left out in this process. They are not graduate students who have constructed an historical framework into which bare facts can be neatly fitted. They are children whose interests must be stirred and satisfied.

Someone has said that history would not be so hard to teach if there were not so much of it. Surely the vast numbers of persons, places, and events that have often been included in elementary history courses have made such courses “hard to teach” and almost impossible for the pupil to learn. Worse than that, they have given children the impression that history, as a subject for study, is dry, uninteresting, difficult, and forbidding. Understandings in economic, political, military, financial, juridical, and diplomatic history that are difficult for most adults are frequently but formally and hopefully presented to the elementary-school pupil.

It is true that few attempts have been made to teach the whole story of American history at the elementary level. But it is not enough to select from the various phases of history those persons, places, and events that permit of simpler presentation and greater ease of understanding. Such a selection on the basis of simplicity alone is too likely to provide a haphazard, fragmentary assembly of isolated facts and situations that may be easy enough to “learn” but that have little chance of retention because they contribute to no pattern such as is found in a good story. The story of history should have unity and continuity. This is made possible through our choice of a simple theme.

Content. The coherent story of American expansion cannot be told adequately while limiting the story to the present boundaries of the United States. Indeed, much of the story, especially the earliest part, occurred outside these boundaries. The *History of our American Neighbors* includes, in addition to the treatment of colonial expansion, a full and well-organized treatment of westward expansion. Adequate attention is also given to the relations between the United States and Canada, to the work of the Russians in Alaska and south along the Pacific coast, and to the work of the Spanish and Portuguese in Central and South America. Particular emphasis on these phases of expansion is found in the first and seventh chapters of the book, but examination of pertinent topics in the index will reveal that such treatment is sustained at appropriate places throughout the text. Not only does such treatment avoid fragmentation; perhaps more important is recognition of the fact that all peoples of both North and South America have made contributions to the development of the Americas. This is the realistic way to promote the idea of friendship and understanding.

A further and most significant merit of the theme, organization, and content of this book is that they make possible a very close correlation with the geography of the Americas. The *History of Our American Neighbors* should be used at the same level at which this phase of geography is taught.

Pictures that contribute to understanding. In no other kind of book are pictures more important than in a history book. The basic task of such a book is to re-create events as they happened in a real world. But words always fall short of a complete portrayal of reality. Pictures are the best tools for overcoming this inevitable inadequacy. They must complement and supplement the printed word in a way that will allow the closest possible approximation to reality. Therefore they must be planned, prepared, and placed in the story with the utmost care and understanding. It is with an awareness of these requirements that this book has been illustrated.

Maps and charts tell a story of growth and change. History is a story of growth. Words and pictures can tell of various steps in the process of growth, and, if properly planned and used, they can make very clear the process itself. The story told through words and pictures is made easier and more vivid by the use of a series of maps which were especially planned for *History of Our American Neighbors*. Color is used in these maps to give the ideas conveyed especial emphasis and significance. An innovation in maps for history texts is found in the use of physical features represented by hypsometric color bands on which historical data have been recorded. Especially useful is such a map in telling the story of expansion. The pupil can see in what directions and to what extent expansion took place. Through studying river valleys, mountains, passes, and such physical features, he can tell *why* explorers and settlers chose the routes that they followed.

At each important new stage of growth and development, changes that have occurred are made pictorially clear to the child. As he reads in this book the story of the growth of our American neighbors, the child has before him a "view" in the visual sense, which enhances his "view" through words. The child knows at each period how much of the Americas has been explored and settled. He knows, too, what nations are taking part in this exploration and settlement, and the contribution being made by each nation to the growth of the Americas. Thus, the maps tell their story.

The time chart on the end pages is the work of Selwyn Dewdney. It was designed to show the unity and continuity of the history of the Americas. It brings together in a sweeping panorama the chief events and prominent historical persons. The use of concentric arcs to mark off the centuries, and radii to mark off Canada, the United States, and Latin America, enables the pupil to see, in a pictorial whole, the flow of history and the relation of persons and events, both in time and in place. Each small cross indicates the approximate time of an event within the century.

Objectives. The primary objective of this book is to establish simple yet fundamental understandings upon which desirable social attitudes can be built. Specific objectives have been determined in the light of their contribution to the realization of this major objective. The establishment of proper social attitudes is quite impossible without understandings upon which to base them. Hence our specific objectives include the creation of both attitudes and understandings.

It is in this manner that we hope to establish the following attitudes and understandings: (1) History is a continuous process in which all events are results of previous events. (2) People and things are always changing. History cannot repeat itself. (3) Culture is cumulative. Our culture is the product of what people in the past have handed down to us and what we have done with it. (4) Peoples are interdependent. (5) History is made by groups of people—not by individuals alone. (6) The Americas are what people from all over the world have made them and what we are making them. (7) Human progress is made by people who work and assume responsibility. (8) Freedom depends upon the intelligent exercise of responsibility. (9) What the Americas will be tomorrow depends upon what we and our neighbors do with what we have today. (10) What the world will be tomorrow is closely related to what the Americas will be tomorrow.

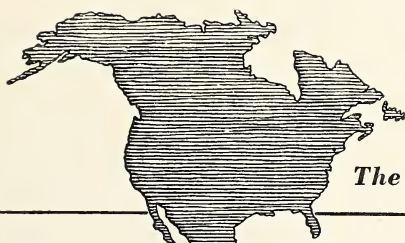
Realizing that the materials of history can be of greater significance and value when skill in their use is established, we have made the building of the following skills an objective in this book: (1) Ability to use table of contents, index, and major and minor headings in locating and interpreting information. (2) Development of a vocabulary of terms basic to American history. (3) Ability to read simple maps, with attention to location, distances, and direction. (4) Ability to select essential ideas and to trace cause and effect. (5) Ability to distinguish generalizations. (6) Ability to relate important persons and events to time and place and to each other.

Readability. An outstanding characteristic of *History of Our American Neighbors* is its readability. It can be read with ease by a student whose standard of reading achievement is Grade Six or higher. Yet the interest level ranges between twelve and sixteen years. An earnest effort has been made to use historical terms in explanatory contexts.

HISTORY OF OUR AMERICAN NEIGHBORS



Merryweather



The Beginning of the New World

AMERICA





The Beginning of the New World—America

What This Book Is About

This book is about people. It is about the real people who were the American neighbors of the people who lived here in Canada in the past. It tells you who they were and what they did. Try to imagine, as you read, that you can really see them.

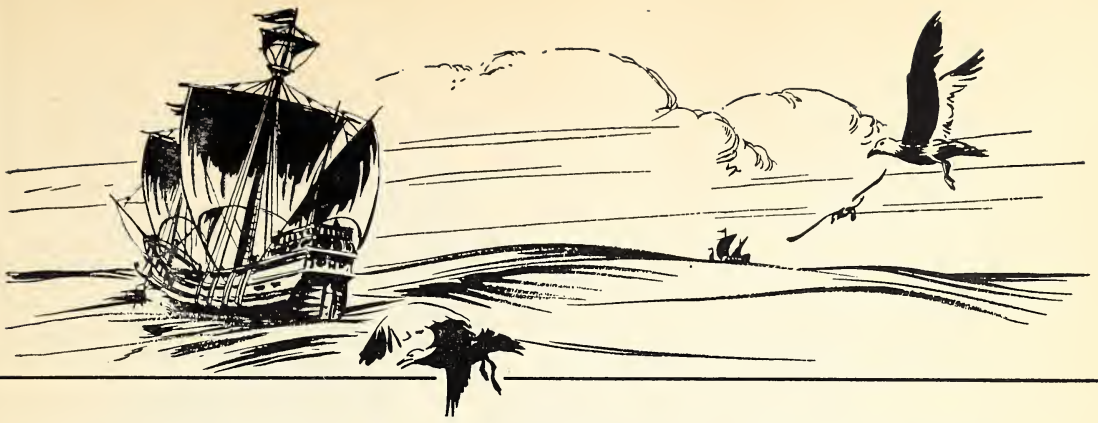
Try to imagine, first, a time when no one in the rest of the world knew that the Americas were here. Once during that time a tiny ship appears in the stormy North Atlantic Ocean. Dark clouds hang over it, and great waves toss it about. It is a long, narrow little ship with rows of oars on either side. It is the ship of Leif Ericson, the Viking. When the weather clears, a square sail is run up the mast and the ship sails

southward along the coast. Then it goes away again. A few more of the Viking ships come. Then you see no more ships for hundreds of years.

At last you see three little ships sailing across the lonely ocean. They are the ships of Columbus. Although he did not know it, he was on his way to discover America. Soon you see more and more ships bringing explorers to learn about the new lands. The explorers sail their ships along the coasts and up great rivers. Some of them go ashore to ride their horses through dark forests or across wide, sunny grass lands and deserts.

Then more ships come, bringing settlers who wish to find new homes. First





there are the Spaniards, who build towns of stone and brick. Later the English found settlements which in time are to become the United States of America. You see them landing on the forested shores, building little cabins for their homes, and chopping down trees so that they may have fields to farm.

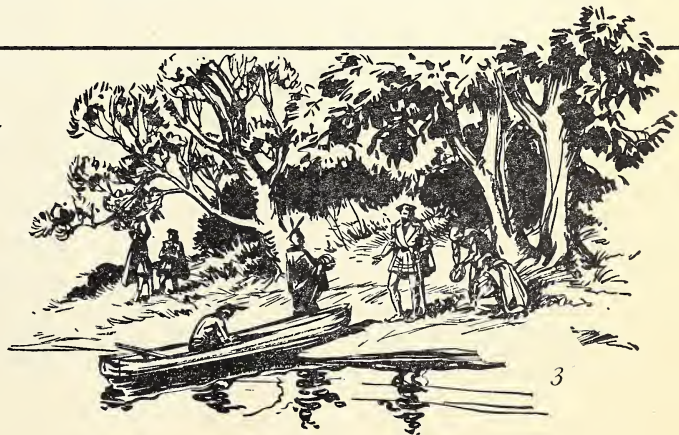
Then you see settlers moving farther and farther into the country, travelling on foot, on horseback, and in covered wagons. You see them on boats and rafts on the rivers. In the eastern part of the country you see the settlers starting farms. In the far western part you see cowboys with wide hats and jingling spurs. They are driving herds of cattle across lands of waving grass.

As time goes on, the country changes. The people change their ways of living, too. Forests are cut down and the land is plowed. Log cabins are replaced by farmhouses of wood or brick. Steam-

boats appear on the rivers. A little later the first railroads are built, and the trains leave long trails of smoke across the country.

At first the people are scattered across the country, family by family, on their own farms. Then little villages grow up. Some of them become towns and a few of them grow into great cities. Many thousands of people leave their farms and come to live close together in the large cities. Factories are built, and over many of the cities smoke darkens the sky.

Here is the country you will see at the end of this book: a land of farms and ranches, crossed by many roads and railroads, dotted with towns and cities, filled with many millions of people. This is the story of how our neighbors came to the Americas, how their ways of living changed, and how they changed the lands in which they lived.



In America, before Columbus came, there were only Indians and small groups of Eskimos. These people did not know that there was a world unlike their own, or that there were people different from themselves, with different ways of living and thinking. Only

once, as far as we know, had any of them seen light-skinned people from Europe. This had happened about five hundred years before the time of Columbus, when people called Vikings came from Norway, a country in northern Europe.

The World before the Time of Columbus

The Vikings sailed first to Iceland and started a settlement there. Then some of them went on and settled in southern Greenland. A ship on its way to Greenland was blown off its course and reached North America. If you look at a globe, you will find that Greenland is not far from this continent. Later, Vikings from Iceland and Greenland made a number of trips along the eastern coast of North America. They seem to have had a settlement there for a time.

After a while the Vikings no longer came to America or stayed in Greenland. There the summers were too short and cool for much farming. The settlers could not grow enough food. Without Greenland for a stopping place, the Vikings could not risk the long trip to America in their little boats.

The people of Norway never forgot the land to the west. Why did the news fail to spread over Europe? To see why, you need to know more about the world at the time of the Vikings.

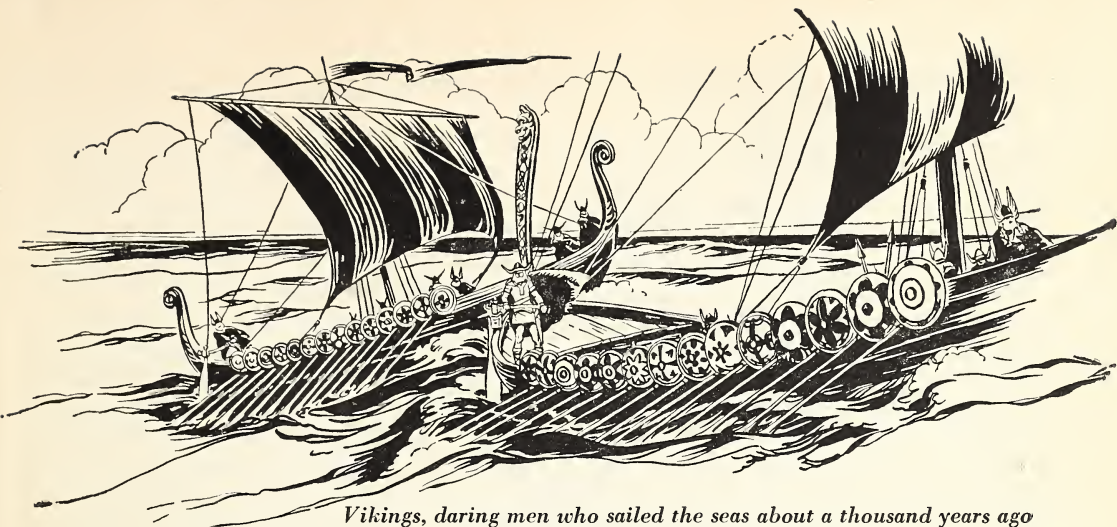
Europe a thousand years ago

The Vikings discovered America almost a thousand years ago. At that time Europe was not ready to make use of the discovery. Most Europeans had no very clear idea of the world outside their own neighborhood. Of course, they had no radio, telephone, or telegraph.

They did not have newspapers, either. The printing press and type for printing had not been invented. Books were very scarce, because every copy had to be written by hand. There was no way for people to learn quickly about what was going on in the world.

A thousand years ago Europe had few people compared with the number that live in Europe today. There were no large cities and only a few towns. Most of the people were scattered over the land in small villages. Those who lived in each village farmed the surrounding land. They raised or made nearly everything they had. A few times a year traders might gather in the market place of the nearest small town. There they spread out the articles they had to sell. People came from the surrounding country to buy the few things they could not grow or make. At these markets they heard a little news of the outside world.

The traders themselves did not know much news, however. They knew what was going on in other towns near by. The few travellers they met on the roads told them some news. But there were not many travellers. People who travelled a thousand years ago walked or rode horseback. Most of the roads were too rough for carts and wagons. Goods were usually carried in packs on the backs of horses, mules, and donkeys.



Vikings, daring men who sailed the seas about a thousand years ago

The Vikings were the only people of Europe who made long voyages across the open ocean. Other people sailed their ships near shore on short voyages. There were no maps for the sailors to use. A few maps had been made, but they were not accurate even for the best-known parts of Europe.

People were not so interested in the world as we are today. They did not expect to go to distant lands. If they heard of a new land, they would not decide to go and see it for themselves. It was entirely outside of the world they knew. They would not think of it as a new continent, for they had no clear idea of what a continent is.

A thousand years ago western Europeans knew all of Europe except the far eastern and northern parts. They knew the Mediterranean Sea well. They called the southern shore Africa, and they knew that land stretched away to the south, far out of their known world.

To the east was a great land they called Asia, but they really knew only the part near the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Somewhere far beyond was a land called Cathay. Somewhere else far to the east were lands called

the Indies. Now and then a trader in Europe had goods to sell that had come from Cathay and the Indies. These goods were silk and cotton materials, spices, and jewels. Very few people had ever travelled all the way from Europe to Eastern Asia, however. Goods were passed along from trader to trader and changed hands many times before they reached western Europe. The map on the next page shows the places that have been named in these paragraphs.

Crusaders march east

Except for the Vikings, the only Europeans who made long journeys were the pilgrims. They travelled to the land in which the Christian religion had begun. This land was Palestine, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. It was called the Holy Land.

The people who lived in the Holy Land at this time were not Christians. They were the followers of a religious leader named Mohammed who had lived many years before in Arabia. For a long time the followers of Mohammed did not try to keep Christian pilgrims from coming to the Holy Land. Then wars broke out and it was no longer

The Beginning of the New World

safe for pilgrims to go there. The people of Europe thought they should be able to travel safely to the land in which their religion had begun. They thought it was wrong that this land should be held by people of another religion.

In the year 1095 several armies set out from western Europe to conquer Palestine. They were strange armies, made up of people from many different countries. Thousands of women and children travelled with the fighting men. The armies were not well equipped. They were under many different leaders, none of whom knew much about the Holy Land or how to get there.

It is surprising that these armies were fairly successful. They conquered large areas in the Holy Land, and their leaders became the rulers of the conquered lands. Fighting went on for nearly two hundred years, however.

The wars fought for the Holy Land were called Crusades and the men who fought them were crusaders. These names come from the Latin word *crux*, meaning "cross." A crusader's badge was a red cross sewed on his clothing.

Later the crusaders lost the lands they had held, and crusaders were afterward never able to get them back. In the meantime, however, thousands of people from western Europe had travelled to the lands at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Many had stayed there for a time. They had not spent all their time fighting. They had worked and traded with the people who lived there.

The people of Europe were never quite the same after the Crusades. Their world had grown a little wider. They had a little more knowledge about far-away places and about people who were not exactly like themselves. The

Map showing the earliest routes from Europe to the lands of the East



crusaders had met people from all parts of Europe and had exchanged ideas with them. In the Holy Land they had met people with very different ways of living. These people knew more about science than the Europeans did and were in many ways more skilful workmen. The people of the Holy Land also knew more than the Europeans did about the lands farther east. They traded by camel caravan with ports on the Red Sea and Persian Gulf. To these ports goods were brought by ship from eastern and southeastern Asia.

The crusaders came home with goods such as the people of Europe had seldom seen. These included spices and sugar, beautiful cloth, and skilled metalwork. The travellers also brought home new ideas and new knowledge about the world. The people who remained at home were influenced, too, because they saw the products the crusaders brought home and heard the stories they told.

During the Crusades some of the seaport cities of Italy became very important. Italian ships carried many crusaders to the Holy Land. Among the Italian cities, the leaders were Venice and Genoa. Merchants from these two cities carried on most of the new trade with the lands at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. There they met traders from still farther east.

Journeys to Cathay

Shortly before the end of the Crusades something happened that greatly increased European knowledge of the world. In the year 1254 two merchants set out from Venice on a long journey.



A crusader brings home gifts

They were brothers, named Nicolo and Maffeo Polo. They travelled eastward along the northern shore of the Black Sea. From the Black Sea they journeyed on almost to the Caspian Sea. Very few people from western Europe had ever been as far from home as the Polo brothers now were. They were brave men, however. They decided to travel far to the southeast, to Bukhara. They knew that in Bukhara they would meet traders from eastern Asia.

The map on page 6 shows that there are many mountains in Asia. The central part of the continent is also very dry. Traders who crossed this rough, dry land followed a road that seems long and very crooked on the map. It was the best way to go, however. It crossed the mountains at the easiest places. Water could be found often enough to supply the traders and their animals. The road was not a paved highway, but only a path that camels and horses could follow. It is called a trade route because it was the road traders took on the long, long journey across Asia.



Marco Polo finally comes to the city of the Great Khan

Bukhara was a stopping place on this route. Chinese traders did not usually go farther west. Other traders took the goods from there. The Polos expected to meet traders from China and learn about the land from which silk and other valuable products came to Europe.

At this time a large part of Asia was ruled by people called Mongols. Their home was the dry lands of central Asia where only grass will grow. The Mongols were *nomads*. This word means that they did not have real homes. They kept sheep and goats and a great many horses. The animals grazed on the grass land. They would not stay long in one place because there was not enough grass. The Mongols lived in tents so that they could move easily. They packed up their tents and moved on whenever their animals needed new pastures. Even today many Mongols spend most of their lives on horseback.

A number of years before the Polos came to Bukhara the Mongols had had a

great leader. Under him Mongol armies had conquered all of central Asia. They had also conquered China to the east. The Mongol leader's grandson was ruler of China at this time. He was called the Great Khan. While the Polos were in Bukhara, they had a chance to join a caravan going to China, which they called Cathay. From Bukhara they travelled a whole year along the old road across Asia. When they reached China, they visited the Great Khan. The Khan asked them many questions about their own country. He allowed them to trade and to travel about and gave them many gifts. When they finally returned to Venice, they had been away from home fifteen years.

The Polo brothers told the people of Venice about the beautiful cities they had seen, and how the people lived in the lands they had visited. None of them enjoyed these stories so much as Marco, Nicolò's son, who was nearly sixteen years old. Imagine Marco's



delight when two years later his father and uncle took him with them on their second journey to Cathay! This difficult but exciting journey took them by way of the great city of Baghdad, over mountains and hot deserts. After a thousand days of travel across Asia they came to the home of the Great Khan.

Marco was now a man of twenty-one. The Great Khan was pleased with him and gave him much important work to do. Marco travelled to many parts of China and even made trips to the countries south of China and to the islands of the Indies. On all these trips he kept careful notes of what he saw, so that he could report to the Khan.

The Polos were so useful to the Great Khan that he did not wish them to go home. He kept them from leaving for seventeen years. When they did start for home, they went by ship, making many stops. The journey around southern Asia took three years. Finally they landed at a port on the Persian Gulf. From there they travelled by land to

the Mediterranean. They arrived at their home in 1295.

The Polos returned to Venice in clothes that were ragged and worn from the long journey. Their relatives and friends refused to believe the stories the Polos told about their trip.

The travellers decided to invite some of their doubting relatives and friends to a banquet. The Polos wore beautiful clothes at the banquet, but when the dinner was over Marco brought in the old robes that they had worn upon their return to Venice. They cut open the seams and linings of the faded clothes. Out fell glittering emeralds, diamonds, rubies, and many other precious stones. The guests could hardly believe their eyes. Soon the whole city was stirred by the stories the Polos told.

One man to whom Marco told these stories wrote them down. The stories made up a book that told far more about Asia than the people of Europe had ever known. Many copies were made even before printing was invented.

The Finding of a New World beyond the Ocean

The stories of Marco Polo were known to many people, but they still seemed like fairy tales. Eastern Asia could be reached only at the end of a long, hard journey. For nearly two hundred years European knowledge of the world grew only a little. Goods from Asia were still

passed on from trader to trader along the old trade routes. Italian merchants bought them at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea and took them to Europe. In spite of the Crusades and the Polos, the people of Europe still lived in a very narrow world.



Routes of Columbus

———— 1492

----- 1493

..... 1502

Routes of Cabot

———— 1497

----- 1498

Route of Pizarro

————

Route of Magellan

———— 1521

Aztec Empire



Inca Empire



Now look at the map on the facing page. It shows the routes followed by some of the explorers who brought to Europeans the knowledge of a larger world. All those voyages were made in the length of time it takes a baby to grow up and become a middle-aged man or woman. Two new continents were added to the known world.

Europeans had lived for thousands of years in a world limited to Europe and the shores of the Mediterranean. Outside of these lands they had only a few ideas about eastern Asia. They knew that land and sea went beyond their known world, but they were not even curious about what this larger world was like. Why did they suddenly become interested? Why did explorer after explorer go out to sail across the Atlantic and then for thousands of miles along the coasts of the Americas?

One reason was the need to find a new way of trading with eastern Asia. People in other parts of Europe were not entirely satisfied with the Italian merchants. They charged very high prices for the goods they sold. Merchants from other countries would have liked a share in the trade. At the same time, the people called Turks were conquering most of the lands at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Italian merchants carried on trade across the lands of the Turks, but merchants of northern Europe could not do it.

Many Europeans began to wonder whether it might not be possible to go all the way to eastern Asia by water. Their search for such a route led to the discovery of America.

An invention made at about the same time was a great help to the explorers. This was the invention of printing. Printed books were cheap, compared

with books written by hand. Many copies were printed and many people read them. Thus when discoveries were made, many people learned about them quickly. This roused much interest in newly discovered lands. Printed books and maps also told explorers what other people had already learned.



Henry's captains learn about the world

In the year 1400 Africa was almost an unknown continent. The Mediterranean coast was well known, but just beyond the coastal lands lay the Sahara, the greatest desert in the world. Sometimes Arab traders brought goods across it, but no European really knew what lay beyond.

Soon after 1400 a young man in Portugal became interested in this great unknown land of Africa. He was Prince Henry, son of the king of Portugal. Henry's country was small and had little wealth. He wished to make it more prosperous by building up its trade. Henry could not hope to send his ships to trade on the Mediterranean Sea. The Italian merchants already had the Mediterranean trade in their own hands. Henry decided to send his ships southward to explore the coast of Africa. At first, perhaps, Henry thought only of trade with the people of Africa south of the Sahara. Then he had a still bolder idea. If his captains could find

their way around Africa, they could go to the Indies by sea. No longer would the Italian merchants have all the valuable trade in goods from Asia.

It took courage and imagination to think of going to the Indies by sea. In the time of Prince Henry the Atlantic was called the Sea of Darkness. It was not a narrow, sunny sea like the Mediterranean, with the shores always comfortably close. It was often dark and stormy, and it seemed to stretch away endlessly to the west and south.

No one knew what lay beyond, and people have always imagined that the unknown is full of danger. In Henry's time many people thought that great sea serpents and other strange animals lived in the ocean. Many would not believe that the earth is round. If the earth were flat, what would there be to keep a ship from falling off the edge? They knew that the weather grew warmer toward the south. If it kept on getting warmer and warmer, would not a ship sailing to the south come at last to a place where the water was boiling and no one could live?

These were imaginary dangers. Even in Henry's time educated people knew better than to believe in them. There were very real dangers, however, and no one understood them better than Prince Henry. Ships were very small. They were tossed about in storms and often blown far from the courses their captains meant to follow. They could easily be thrown against rocky shores and wrecked.

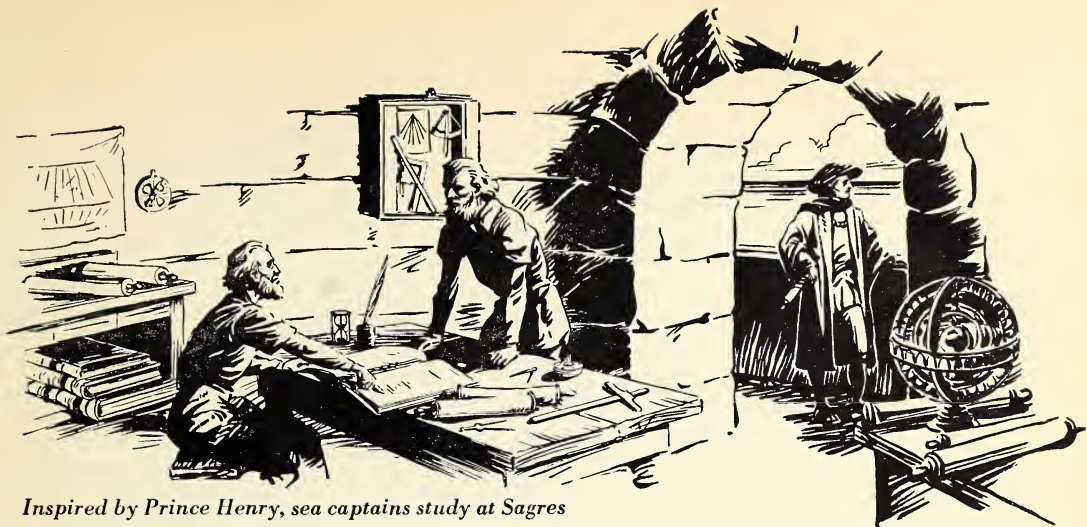
Ships depended upon the wind to push them through the water. If the wind did not blow, they could not move. If it blew from the wrong direction, they had to travel in zigzags that added many, many miles to their course.

A ship's captain had no good way of telling directions or finding out where he was. He could tell directions by the sun and stars, but sometimes on the stormy Atlantic the sky was covered by clouds for days at a time.

Until about the time of Henry, European captains had no instruments to help them find the way. Now two new instruments were coming into use, but as yet few captains had them or knew how to use them. These instruments were the *compass* and the *astrolabe*. You have probably seen compasses. The important part of a compass is a needle that points toward the north.

An astrolabe is an instrument that measures the exact height of the sun. You know that the noonday sun is directly overhead at the equator in March and September. Between March and September it swings north as far as the Tropic of Cancer. In the other half-year, it swings south to the Tropic of Capricorn. With an astrolabe and the knowledge of how to use it, a captain could tell exactly how far north or south he was. To do this, the captain needed to know where the noonday sun was directly overhead on that day of the year. The astrolabe told him the height of the sun. Then, if he knew how to work the right problems, he could find out how far north or south he was from the place where the sun was straight overhead. He would give his answer in degrees of *latitude*. Latitude means distance from the equator.

Prince Henry decided that his captains should learn everything that was known about the earth, about sailing a ship, and about finding the way. He went to live on a lonely cape, called Sagres, at the southern end of the coast of Portugal. There he built a tall



Inspired by Prince Henry, sea captains study at Sagres

tower from the top of which he could see far out over the Atlantic Ocean. He collected all the travel books, charts, and maps he could find. Travellers, students, map makers, and sea captains were invited to come to Sagres to learn all that was known about strange shores and distant places.

Henry's captains learned to use the new instruments. They learned to make maps of what they saw. They also brought back news of their own discoveries and exchanged knowledge and ideas with other men. Up to this time captains had blindly felt their way about the small world they knew. Now the world seemed to grow larger with every voyage, but Henry's captains were learning to find their way about in it.

Prince Henry urged each captain to go farther than anyone had gone before. If one reported the finding of an unknown cape along the African shore, Prince Henry would say to the next one, "Pass the cape! Pass the cape!" By the time of Prince Henry's death, in 1460, his captains had almost reached the equator. They were still far from the goal that Henry had set for them, a way to the east around Africa.

Not until 1488 did a ship round the tip of Africa. In that year Bartholomew Diaz rounded the stormy cape which marks the point where the coast turns east. At last the way lay open to the Indies. The Portuguese king was so pleased that he called the point of land the Cape of Good Hope.

Columbus sails west

The Portuguese will come into our story again, but now we need to go back to a time long before Diaz first rounded the Cape of Good Hope. It was probably in 1460, the year of Prince Henry's death, that a boy of fourteen set out from Genoa, Italy, on his first sea voyage. The exact date of his birth is uncertain. No one kept careful records of his early years, for no one knew that this red-haired, blue-eyed boy was to become famous. The boy's name was Christopher Columbus.

Christopher did not spend all his time at sea after that first voyage. His father was a weaver, and the boy learned his father's trade. The thing he loved most to do, however, was to visit the harbor. Here he watched the trading ships come and go and listened

to the seamen as they told their tales of the sea and of distant places.

As a young man Columbus went to sea again. We hear of him in England, and he probably went to Iceland. There he may have learned about the land to the west which the Vikings had discovered long before. A year or two later he went to live in Portugal and married the daughter of one of Prince Henry's captains. In Portugal, Columbus worked as a map maker. He learned what the Portuguese captains had learned about the world and about sailing. He also had a copy of Marco Polo's book of travels, which he studied carefully. All his studies convinced him that he could reach eastern Asia by sailing westward across the Atlantic.

Columbus may have known that the Vikings had found land to the westward across the Atlantic. He knew that the earth is round, but he believed it to be smaller than it is. From Marco Polo's book he knew that Asia stretched a long, long way to the east from Europe. He had learned from this book also that a great sea with many islands lay beyond Asia. Since he knew nothing of the Americas, he believed that this sea must be the other side of the Atlantic Ocean. If the earth was round like a ball, he thought, a ship which sailed west must come to these islands along the coast of Asia. He was determined to try out his plan.

Columbus drew maps and charts of these islands and of Asia. He traced on his maps the route that he would sail to reach them. He showed these to the king of Portugal. The king and his advisers laughed at Columbus for thinking that he could reach eastern Asia in this way. Meanwhile, secretly, they sent out a ship of their own to try it.

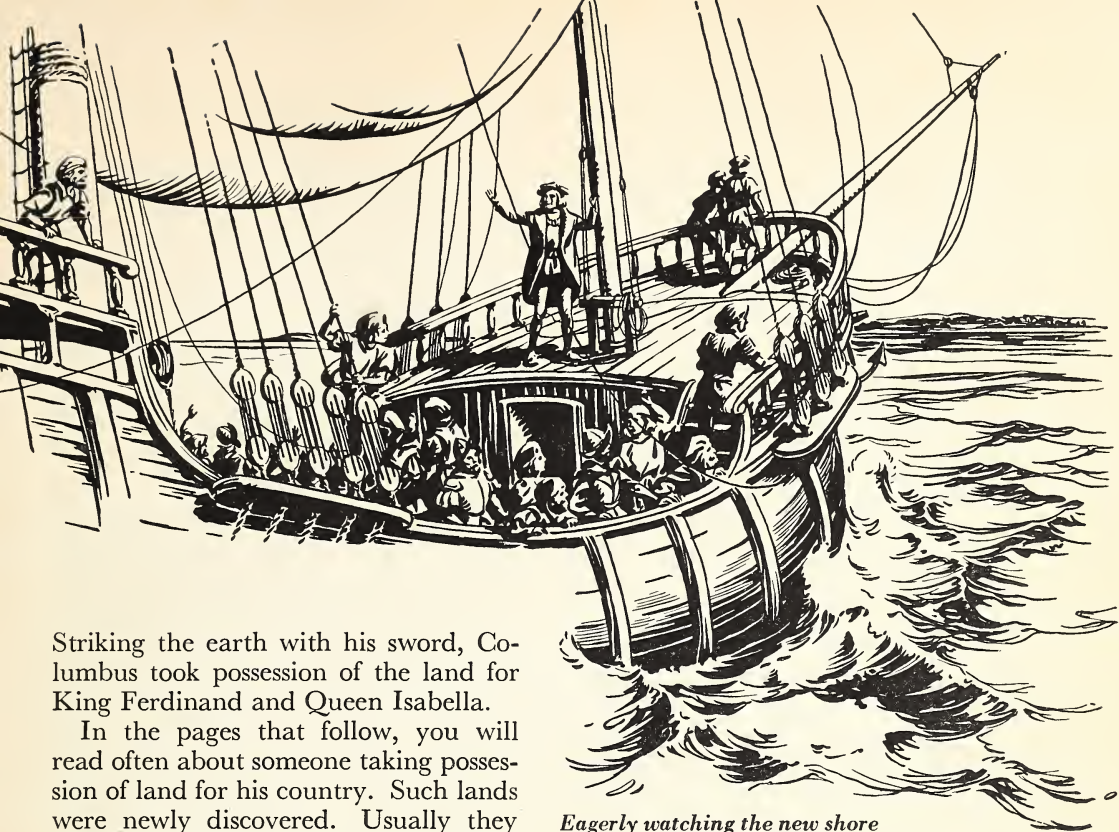
After only a few days at sea the ship returned. When Columbus learned of this, he became so angry that he left Portugal and went to Spain.

Spain was at war at this time. The king and queen, Ferdinand and Isabella, had little time to think of voyages of discovery. Columbus had to wait.

After Columbus had waited seven long years, the king and queen agreed to give him three ships with which to try out his plan. The *Santa Maria* was only eighty feet long and twenty-five feet wide. The *Pinta* and the *Niña* were even smaller. They were loaded with food and supplies to last several months.

On the third day of August, 1492, the people of Palos, in Spain, crowded about the wharf. When the last good-bye had been said, the little fleet of Columbus put out to sea. The sun rose and set many times after the men lost sight of the land they had left. Weeks passed. Some of the crew became frightened. They feared that they would be drawn down into a great whirlpool and destroyed. Others grew angry. They even planned to throw Columbus into the sea and turn back, but he persuaded them to go on. His command was always, "Sail on!"

The sight of land birds flying over the ships gave the men new courage. On the eleventh of October a branch with berries on it was seen floating in the water. That night Columbus saw a light in the distance. Early the next morning, October 12, the sandy shores of an island appeared a few miles ahead. Now everyone shouted with joy. Columbus, dressed in a scarlet cloak, set out in a small boat for the shore. The captains of the two smaller ships and some of his men went with him. They set up the banner of Spain and a cross.



Eagerly watching the new shore

Striking the earth with his sword, Columbus took possession of the land for King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella.

In the pages that follow, you will read often about someone taking possession of land for his country. Such lands were newly discovered. Usually they had few people, and most of the land was not used. When an explorer found such a land, he might claim it, or take possession of it, for his own country. This meant that the explorer's country would rule the land. His country might send settlers to the land and keep people from other countries away. The settlements were called *colonies* of the country that sent them out.

At this time, most European countries were ruled by absolute monarchs who made laws, signed agreements with other countries, and chose their own helpers and advisers. Only England had a law-making parliament.

In those days of slow sailing ships the kings could not really rule far-away colonies. They could not learn quickly what was going on or send instructions when instructions were needed. Instead, they named a man as *governor* of each

colony. The governor took the king's place in the colony. Before Columbus left Spain, the king had appointed him governor of any lands he discovered.

From the story he told, we believe that Columbus landed on Watling Island, which you can find on the map on page 10. He thought he had landed on one of the islands east of Asia, which Europeans called the Indies. When dark-skinned people came down to the shore, Columbus called them Indians. People went on using the name even when they knew better. To this day we use this name.

Within a few days Columbus and his men set out to find other islands. The Indians told them in sign language that there was a large island to the southwest and said its name was Cuba. This

island is so large that, when he reached it, Columbus thought it was the continent of Asia. He searched for the great cities which Marco Polo had written about but found only Indian villages.

New troubles arose for Columbus. His men were restless. The *Santa Maria* was wrecked on the coast of a large island, Española, now called Hispaniola. The two smaller ships, the *Pinta* and the *Niña*, could not carry all the men. A little fort was built on the shore with timbers from the *Santa Maria*. Leaving thirty-seven of his men here, Columbus sailed for Spain.

Columbus was a proud and happy man when he reached Spain. People who once had called him a dreamer now shouted their praises of him. King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella were pleased to see the Indians and the gifts Columbus had brought. There were brightly colored parrots, strange plants, and a small quantity of gold. The king and queen were even more pleased to hear that Columbus had reached eastern Asia by sailing west. Little did they or Columbus realize that he had discovered a new world instead.

In 1493 Columbus set out on a second voyage with seventeen ships and about twelve hundred men. They took orange and lemon trees, sugar cane, vegetable seeds, and horses, pigs, and sheep. On Hispaniola they started the first European settlement in the New World. Columbus named the settlement Isabela, for the Queen. The Queen's name is usually spelled Isabella, but the Spanish spelling is really Isabela.

Five years later Columbus made a third voyage. This time he sailed along the coast of South America. He knew by now that this land was not Cathay or India. He called it a "new world"

and thought it was south of Cathay. Columbus made one more voyage, starting in 1502. He took a different route this time. It brought him to the shores of Panama. On this voyage Columbus fell ill with fever. He finally returned to Spain, a sick and discouraged man. He died in 1506, still believing that he had found some islands of the East Indies and a new world south of Cathay.

Is America a new world?

Before Columbus had finished his fourth voyage, a number of other explorers had reached the Americas. From their reports, European map makers began to draw maps of the newly discovered lands. On one of these, made in 1507, the name "America" was used. The map maker had read a letter written by Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian. In this letter Vespucci claimed that he had made four voyages to the New World and had explored long stretches of the coast of South America. Another spelling of his first name was "Americus," and it was from this that the map maker took the name America. Historians doubt that Vespucci was ever in charge of any expedition to America. We still use the name, however, whether or not Amerigo deserved the honor.

While Spanish ships were exploring the islands and the coast of South America, another voyage was made far to the north. Living in England at this time was a Venetian sea captain named John Cabot. When he heard about the discoveries of Columbus, Cabot got permission from King Henry VII of England to go on a voyage of exploration.

Cabot did not keep careful records of his voyages, as Columbus did, and so we know less about them. We know that

he sailed from the port of Bristol in 1497 in a tiny ship with only eighteen men. Like Columbus, Cabot was looking for the lands of spice, but he believed that spices came from the northern part of Asia. We know now that nearly all spices are products of warm lands near the equator, but Cabot did not know this. He seems to have believed that he would find the spice lands by sailing westward from England.

The first land seen by Cabot is thought to have been Cape Breton Island, though it may have been Newfoundland. He went ashore and claimed the new land for England. He saw no people, but he discovered signs that someone lived there. He found a trap for animals, a needle for making fishing nets, and trees that had been cut down. After sailing along the coasts near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, Cabot returned to England.

Cabot had not found a way to Asia, but his voyage had two important results. He gave England a claim to part of North America, and he discovered the fishing ground called the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. He said there were "vast quantities of large fish—great seals, salmons, and cod." The sailors let baskets down into the water and brought them up filled with fish. Cabot called the coast the "Land of Cod" because codfish were so plentiful.

On his return to England, Cabot was greatly honored. A book of that time said: "Vast honor is paid him; he dresses in silk, and the English run after him like mad people." In the next year Cabot made another trip to America, this time with more ships and men. His son, Sebastian, was with him on the second voyage and may have been on the first. After Cabot's voyages, many fishing boats came to the Grand Bank. We shall learn, however, that it was about seventy-five years later that the English became very much interested in the New World.

In the meantime Spain was starting colonies in America. At first these settlements were meant to be places where ships could stop for repairs and supplies. Explorers were still looking for the cities of eastern Asia. They now realized that the lands they were exploring were not the part of the earth described by Marco Polo, so they called the newly discovered lands a New World. They still believed, however, that Cathay, the Spice Islands, and India must be somewhere near by, and explorers kept on looking for them. They still thought the earth was much smaller than it is, and so they were sure they must have sailed almost far enough westward from Europe to have reached Asia.

In time the Spaniards began to think the New World itself might be valuable.



Cabot exploring the shores of lands he claimed for England

They were beginning to find gold and silver there. If they could not find the countries where sugar and spices grew, they could raise these products themselves. The first settlements were made on islands of the Caribbean Sea and on the coast of northern South America. As you can see on the map on page 10, these lands are south of the Tropic of Cancer. The weather is warm the year round, there is plenty of rain, and the soil is good. The Spaniards began to grow sugar cane, spices, and tropical fruits almost as soon as the first colonies were started.

In the year 1501 a young Spaniard named Balboa came to the colony on Hispaniola and began to farm. He really came by accident, for he never intended to live on Hispaniola or to be a farmer. He probably considered himself a very unlucky man. All his life long scarcely any of his plans turned out as he had expected. Yet he made one very important discovery.

Balboa had left Spain with an explorer who was bound for Panama, on the western shore of the Caribbean. The expedition never reached Panama, however. The ship was wrecked on the shores of Hispaniola. Balboa had no money and could not leave. He became a farmer and lived in Hispaniola for nine years. Perhaps he was not a good farmer. We know that by 1510 he was badly in debt.

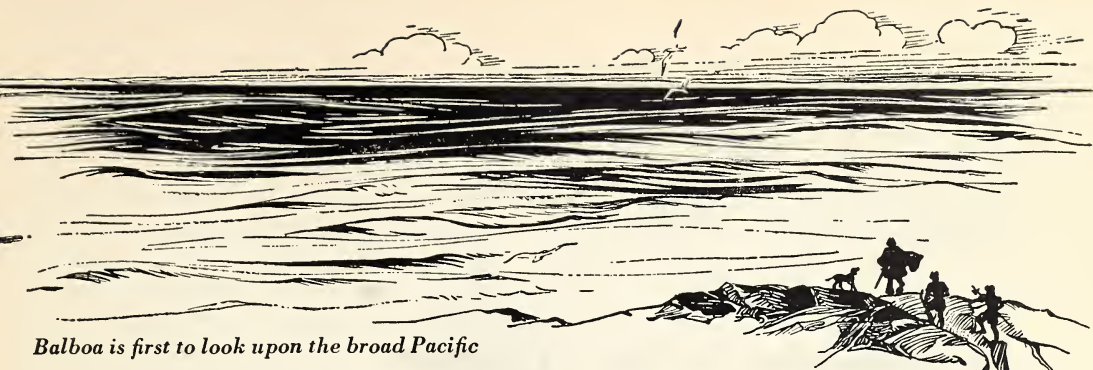
In that year another ship started for Panama, which was called Darien in those days. When the ship was far from land, the crew was startled. Out of two large barrels that stood on the deck crawled a man and a dog. Under his flowing cloak the man wore a suit of rusty armor. In his hand was a bright sword. It was Balboa, on his way to Panama at last. He knew that the people to whom he owed money would never let him leave Hispaniola with his debts unpaid. So he had hidden in the barrel, and here he was, farm and debts forgotten.

The expedition reached Panama and started a settlement there, but the men soon began to quarrel with their leader. Whenever difficulties arose, Balboa had good ideas about what to do. The settlers followed his advice instead of the orders of their leader. Finally Balboa sent the leader back to Spain and became head of the settlement himself.

The Spaniards found a little gold in Panama, and the Indians told them of a land where much more gold was to be found. Panama is only a thin strip of land, but the Spaniards did not know this at the time. The Indians said they would have to cross the mountains near the coast. Then they would come to more water. They would have to build ships and sail across the water to the southwest to find the gold.

Balboa set out in September, 1513, with one hundred ninety Spaniards and some Indian guides. They had to chop their way through a thick forest before reaching the mountains. From a mountain top Balboa caught his first glimpse of another great ocean. His men set up a little cross of stones. Then there was a race down the mountain side to the shore. When they reached it,





Balboa is first to look upon the broad Pacific

Balboa waded out into the water and took possession of the ocean for the king of Spain. Balboa called this ocean the Southern Sea. We know it as the Pacific Ocean. From the Indians, Balboa heard more stories of a rich land to the south. He decided to build ships and sail away to look for this land.

After months of work the ships were finished, but Balboa never had a chance to go on this expedition. When he arrived in Spain, the old leader told the king of Spain that Balboa was not loyal to him. This was not true, but the king believed it. So he sent another man to take Balboa's place.

Balboa had made a great discovery. For the first time the western shores of the New World had been seen by Europeans. Balboa had learned that there was another great ocean beyond. He had landed by chance at the narrowest part of the Americas, the strip of land now called the Isthmus of Panama. At this time the Europeans had no way of knowing that the land widened to the north and to the south. It seemed to them that if the land was so narrow there must be a way through it.

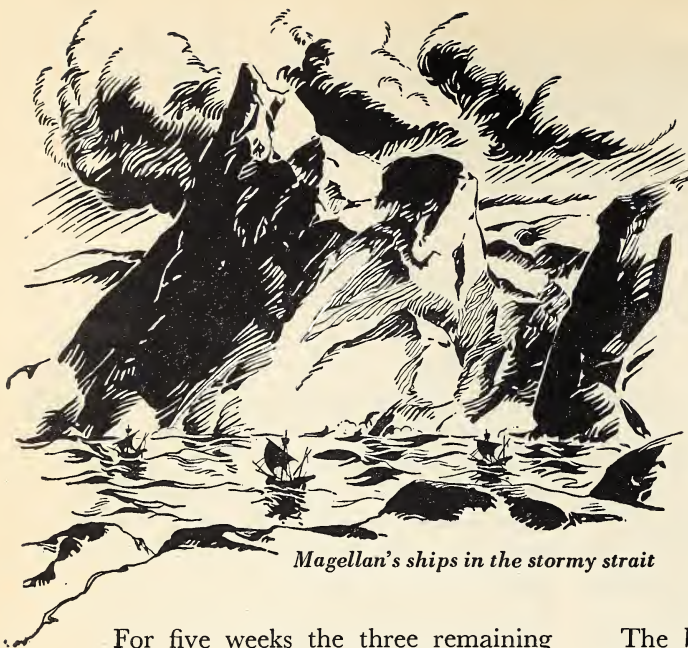
The first voyage around the world

Soon after Balboa's discovery, a way to the Pacific was found, but it was not an easy way. The leader of the expedition was Magellan, a Portuguese cap-

tain sent out by the king of Spain. The king gave Magellan five ships and a crew of two hundred forty men. In September, 1519, they left Spain and sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to the coast of South America. It was Magellan's plan to sail along South America until he found a waterway leading through the land. Weeks, even months, passed without any sign of a waterway. Terrible storms arose. The weather grew colder and colder. Magellan was now far south of the equator. It was March, and he knew that winter would soon come. Magellan put in for the winter at a small harbor which he called Saint Julian. One ship, sent to explore farther south, was wrecked.

In the spring the ships sailed on to the south. Although Magellan did not know it, the ships were now near the southern tip of South America. Soon they came to a narrow, crooked channel leading into the land. The explorers tasted the water. It was salty! This was no river. Surely it must be a strait leading to the other ocean.

Bare, snowy mountains towered high on both sides of the strait. Storms added to the danger of sailing through this narrow, winding, unknown channel. Then one of the ships disappeared, and Magellan and his men wasted days looking for it. They did not know that the ship was sailing back to Spain.



Magellan's ships in the stormy strait

For five weeks the three remaining ships fought their way through the strait to the open ocean. It was so calm and peaceful that Magellan called it the Pacific. We use Magellan's own name for the strait he discovered. You can find the Strait of Magellan on the map on page 10.

The ships sailed north along the west coast of South America for several hundred miles. Then they turned toward the northwest. It took more than three months to cross the vast Pacific Ocean. The voyage was much longer than Magellan had expected, and there was not enough food. Many of the men became ill, and some of them died.

At last the ships came to a group of small islands. The men could not land, however, because the people were unfriendly. It was not until they reached the Philippines that they were able to get fresh food. Turn back to the map on page 6 to find where the Philippines are. Here Magellan stopped to let his men regain their strength. He found the people friendly and spent his time

teaching them about Christianity. Then a war broke out between two tribes, and Magellan decided to help the chief of one tribe, who was friendly to him. In the battle that followed, Magellan and some of his men were killed.

There were not enough men left to work all the ships, and so one ship was burned. Magellan's men went on and soon reached the Spice Islands. Here another ship began to leak so badly that it was left behind. Sixty men crowded into the *Victoria*, the one ship left, and set out for Spain.

The *Victoria* had to sail all the way across the Indian Ocean and around Africa. Food ran short again, and men sickened and died. At last, in 1522, the proud *Victoria* sailed into the harbor of Palos, Spain, carrying twenty-six tons of cloves from the Spice Islands. Amid shouting and the firing of cannon, eighteen weary men came ashore. Magellan's goal was won.

Spanish conquerors

In 1504 a young man came to Hispaniola from Spain. His name was Hernando Cortés. Seven years later he was sent to Cuba. By this time many Spanish colonies had been started around the shores of the Caribbean Sea and on the islands.

In 1518 Cortés was put in charge of an expedition that was to sail west from Cuba across the Gulf of Mexico. He was to conquer Mexico for the king of Spain. At that time no one believed it was wrong to conquer other people and rule their country. In fact, many Spaniards thought they were doing a

good deed in conquering the Indians. The Spaniards were Roman Catholics, and the church at this time was sending out many missionaries. The missionaries went to parts of the earth in which the people were not Christians and taught them about Christianity. When the Spaniards had conquered an area, the missionaries could go there to teach the Indians.

The Indians, too, did not think it wrong for one people to conquer another. They often did it themselves, if they were able. On the highlands of Mexico lived an Indian people called the Aztecs. Less than a hundred years before the Spaniards came, the Aztecs had conquered other tribes around them until they ruled most of the land that is now central and eastern Mexico.

The Aztecs were very remarkable Indians. Their capital, where their ruler lived, was a city built on an island in a lake. The island was connected with the main shore by bridges. The city itself had paved streets and stone buildings. The people dressed in cotton clothing, decorated with bright-colored feathers and embroidery. They made beautiful jewelry of gold and silver. For tools and weapons they used copper and bronze. Bronze is a mixture of copper and tin which is much harder than copper alone.

In 1519 Cortés landed on the coast of Mexico. Within a few years he conquered all the lands ruled by the Aztecs. He then sent out expeditions under other leaders to conquer tribes to the north and the south.

Cortés had reached Mexico with only about six hundred Spaniards—one hundred sailors and five hundred soldiers. Why was he able to defeat the powerful Aztecs with this small force?

There were several reasons. First, the Aztecs had not seen white people before. As you know, the light-skinned peoples of the earth are called white. Of course, no one has a skin that is really white. The word "white" is just a name for a large group of people whose homelands were in Europe, southwestern Asia, and northern Africa. Their skin, hair, and eyes are usually lighter in color than those of other peoples of the world. A large group of people such as this is called a race.

Most Indians have darker skin and eyes and black hair. The men usually have very little beard. The Aztecs had a story about a god who had come to them from the east many years before. He had a light skin and a heavy beard. After teaching them better methods of farming and how to make many useful things, he left again, going toward the east over the water. Before he left he said that he would return some day.

Perhaps a Viking ship sailed this far. Perhaps other European ships were blown across the Atlantic and a sailor reached Mexico. Perhaps it was just a story the Aztecs thought was true. We shall probably never know. We do know that the Aztecs thought Cortés might be their god returning, and so they did not try to drive him away.

Second, the Aztecs themselves were conquerors. Before Cortés reached the high valley where the Aztecs lived, he met Indians who had been conquered by them. These Indians were quite willing to help Cortés fight their conquerors. They sent many warriors with him.

Third, the Spaniards were no better fighters than the Aztecs, but they had better equipment. They wore suits of steel armor. You have seen Spaniards in armor in some of the pictures in this

book. The arrows and spears of the Indians were harmless when they struck steel helmets or breastplates. The Spaniards also had guns. Guns had been invented about two hundred years before, but they were still not very good. The Spaniards had small cannon that did not shoot far or do much damage, but they made a very loud noise, which frightened the Indians. The Spaniards had a few guns that could be carried. These were even less effective than the cannon, but they, too, were noisy.

Even more frightening than the guns were the horses of the Spaniards. Cortés took only sixteen of them, but the Indians were frightened when they saw them. No Indians had animals that could be ridden, and they could not at first understand a man on horseback. They thought the man and the horse together were one strange animal.

Almost as soon as Cortés had conquered Mexico, Spanish settlers began going there to live. Missionaries came to teach the Indians, and many of them began to live as the Spaniards did. The Spanish settlers became farmers and

traders. They built schools and beautiful homes. The first printing press in America was in the city of Mexico, the old capital of the Aztecs.

One of the men with Balboa in Panama was Francisco Pizarro. He heard the stories the Indians told about people to the south who had fine cities and much gold. In 1524 Pizarro led an expedition southward, determined to go on until he found the rich cities. He travelled very slowly, exploring carefully as he went. At last he crossed the equator and came to the part of the South American coast that extends farthest west. On the water he saw Indians on rafts with sails. On shore there was a beautiful city.

The Spaniards went ashore to walk along the streets lined with buildings of stone. They saw people dressed in bright-colored clothing that seemed to be made of wool. The most skilful weavers of Europe could not have made a greater variety of fine textiles. Gold and silver were used, too.

The Aztecs thought Cortés might be a god



High mountains rose close behind the town. Pizarro learned that the land he hoped to find was high in the mountains. There, in wide valleys between the ranges, a great many people lived. There were cities much finer than the city on the coast. One of these cities was the capital, Cuzco. In Cuzco lived the Inca, the ruler of the country.

Pizarro knew he could not conquer this great country with the few men he had. He sailed back to Panama and then all the way to Spain for help. This was in 1528. It was not until the end of 1531 that he started southward again from Panama. When he came back to the city on the seacoast, he probably had an army of a little more than two hundred men. With them he expected to conquer the greatest and richest country in the Americas. This country is usually called the Inca Empire. Only the ruler and his highest officers were really called Incas, but we use the name for all the people under their rule. Like the land ruled by the Aztecs, the Inca

Empire had been built up by conquest. The Incas were at first a small group of Indians living at Cuzco. They conquered the tribes near them and then those farther away to the north and the south.

Turn back to the map on page 10 to see how far the land of the Incas extended. At the time Pizarro came to South America, it reached a long way along the Andes Mountains south of the equator. From east to west it included the whole highland area and the narrow lowland along the coast.

The Inca was an absolute ruler; that is, he made all the laws and could tell all the people exactly what to do. Of course, he could not know every person, but he had officials to carry out his wishes. Orders were carried by runners.

In order that messages could be sent quickly, two long roads ran northward from Cuzco and two southward. They reached every part of the Inca Empire. They were paved with stone but were very narrow because they were meant for people travelling on foot. In all the Americas there were no horses or other



animals that people could ride. There were no carts or wagons, because even the most skilful Indians had never thought of making a wheel.

Most of the people of the Inca Empire were farmers. Their most important crop was corn, but they also grew potatoes and a plant called quinoa, of which both the seeds and the leaves were eaten. The work was done by hand because there were no animals to help. The only farm animals were the llama and the alpaca. The high valleys of the Andes were the home of these animals. They can carry packs on their backs, and their meat is good to eat. Their hair can be spun and woven into cloth that is finer and softer than wool. The beautiful textiles that Pizarro's men saw were made of the hair of these animals.

The Inca farms were in the valleys. The valley bottoms were covered with little fields, and the slopes were terraced so that they, too, could be farmed. Some of the cities of the Inca Empire were fortresses on high hills. They were built of stone, and the walls were so well made that many of them are still standing.

It may seem hard to believe that Pizarro conquered the Incas with an army of a few hundred Spaniards, but he did. He had armor, horses, and firearms to help him, as Cortés had. On the other hand, the Incas lived among high mountains. If all the people had really tried to keep the Spaniards out, they could probably have done so.

The Inca Empire had grown almost too large. A ruler had died a short time before and left the northern part of the empire to one of his sons and the southern part to another son. Each of the sons wished to rule the whole empire.

Quarrels among the Incas made it easier for Pizarro to defeat them.

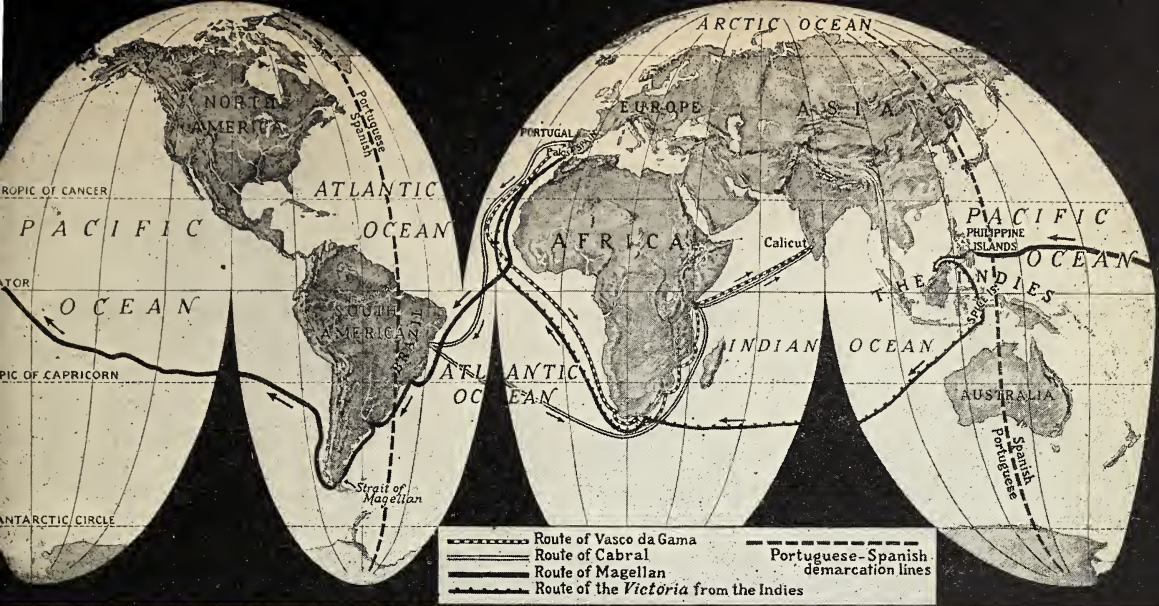
The people were not used to thinking or acting for themselves. Their rulers had always told them exactly what to do. When Pizarro had captured or killed the rulers, the people still expected to be told what to do and accepted the Spaniards as their rulers. Thus Pizarro was able quite easily to conquer the Incas and rule them for Spain.

Soon other Spaniards explored and conquered lands in South America. Spanish settlers came to live there and Spanish priests came as missionaries. Finally Spain ruled a large part of the continent, but not all. To learn what happened to the rest, we must go back to the story of the Portuguese explorers.

An American colony for Portugal

On page 13 you learned how Bartholomew Diaz finally found the southern tip of Africa in 1488 and came back to report that the way was open to India. Four years later America was discovered. Portuguese captains were planning more voyages to the east, and captains of Spanish ships were planning more voyages to the west. Most of the Atlantic was not yet explored. For all anyone knew, the ocean might be full of valuable islands. It was likely that both Spanish and Portuguese captains might soon discover the same lands and quarrel about them.

The people of both Spain and Portugal were Roman Catholics. The Pope, the head of their church, knew a way to keep the two countries from quarrelling about newly discovered lands. He said the explorers should imagine a line drawn straight north and south on the earth. The line should be one hundred leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands.



Map showing the Line of Demarcation

A league was about four miles long. Portuguese captains should stay east of this line and Spanish captains west of it. This was agreed upon in 1493.

In the next year, Spain and Portugal agreed to move the line farther west. It was to be three hundred seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands.

You can find this line on the map on this page. It is called the *Line of Demarcation*. At this time no one had discovered a very accurate way to measure distance east and west. No one knew that the Line of Demarcation cut off the eastern tip of South America.

By 1497 Portugal was ready to follow up Diaz's discovery of a way to the east by water. An expedition was sent out under the leadership of Vasco da Gama. He was to take four ships and one hundred seventy men to India.

After a long voyage the ships rounded the Cape of Good Hope. They followed the eastern coast of Africa northward for a time. Then they sailed across the Indian Ocean to Calicut, India. At last Prince Henry's goal was won.

In the year 1500 a Portuguese captain named Cabral reached the coast of South America. He was on his way to India and said he was blown too far west. Cabral touched the continent east of the Line of Demarcation. Other Portuguese explorers travelled along the coast and up the Amazon.

Neither the Pope nor the men from Spain and Portugal who agreed to move the line meant to give any of South America to Portugal. Now, however, the Portuguese had two good claims to eastern South America. It was on the Portuguese side of the Line of Demarcation, and their captains had explored it. Portuguese settlers came and started sugar plantations. Brazil became a colony of Portugal. Its people still speak the Portuguese language, while the people of other countries in South America speak Spanish.

People soon realized that the Line of Demarcation should run all the way round. It should divide the whole earth into halves. If you have a globe, you can easily see where the line should

be drawn on the other side of the earth. Use a string long enough to go all the way around the globe. First stretch it from pole to pole on the Atlantic side of the earth. Follow the Line of Demarcation as it is shown on the map on page 25. Now carry your string straight on around the globe, from pole to pole on the other side. Compare this part of the line, too, with the line on the map. You can see that the Spice Islands and southeastern Asia are on the Portuguese half of the world.

On page 20 you learned about Magellan's trip. He claimed the Philippine Islands for Spain. At that time, as you know, there was no good way to measure long distances east and west on the earth. Magellan thought the Philippines were on the Spanish side of the Line of Demarcation. His mistake was not discovered for a long time. When it was discovered, the islands had already been a Spanish colony too long to change. They belonged to Spain for almost four hundred years.

What Early Explorers Learned about North America

Now we must go back for a moment to the year in which Balboa first looked at the Pacific Ocean. This was 1513. In this same year the first explorer stepped ashore on land that is now part of the mainland of the United States. As you will remember, the first settlement in the New World had been made by Columbus just twenty years before. By this time a number of settlements had been started on the islands that we now call the West Indies. From the West Indies, explorers had gone to the south and to the west. No explorer had gone north, so far as we know.

The settlers had heard from the Indians a few stories about land to the north. These were the kind of stories we now call rumors. They were passed along from one Indian to another and from one Spaniard to another until there was very little truth left.

From the stories of the Indians, the Spaniards believed that there was a rich land to the north. They did not know whether it was an island or part of a continent. They believed gold was to be found there and also a magic spring, which they called the Fountain

of Youth. Anyone who bathed in the Fountain of Youth would become young again. We should know at once that such a story could not be true, but the people of that time knew less about science. They thought a fountain of youth was quite possible.

Among the Spaniards who heard this story and believed it was Ponce de Leon, governor of Puerto Rico. The king of Spain gave him permission to look for this land and said he might be governor of it if he found it.

In 1513 Ponce de Leon set out from Puerto Rico. Sailing to the northwest, his ships passed many little islands. At last they came to a coast that seemed to go on and on. Ponce de Leon sailed along this coast for a week. Then he landed and took possession of the country for Spain. He called the new country Florida because he had seen it first at Easter time. *Pascua Florida* is the Spanish name for Easter. The word *Florida* means "flowery." The Spanish had seen many flowers along the shore, and for this reason, too, they thought that Florida would be a good name for the beautiful new country.

Ponce de Leon sailed for Spain to report what he had found. The king gave him permission to explore and conquer the land, but first there was work to be done in the West Indies. He did not have a chance to go back to Florida for eight years. Then he took with him settlers and farm animals. Before the settlers could even build houses to live in, the Indians drove them away. Ponce de Leon himself was wounded by an arrow and later died from the wound.

For eighteen years longer the land that was to become the United States remained almost unknown. A few explorers travelled along the coasts and some of them went ashore. Several Spaniards were captured by the Indians and lived with them for a time.

De Soto explores southern forests

Exploration of the United States mainland began in 1539 when De Soto, a Spaniard, landed in Florida. In the next year another Spaniard, Coronado, started north from Mexico. The journeys they made covered most of the southern part of the United States. On the map on pages 28-29 you will be able to follow their long journeys. By now it was known that Florida was part of a great continent that went on and on to the north and west. Mexico, which Cortés had conquered, was also part of this continent.

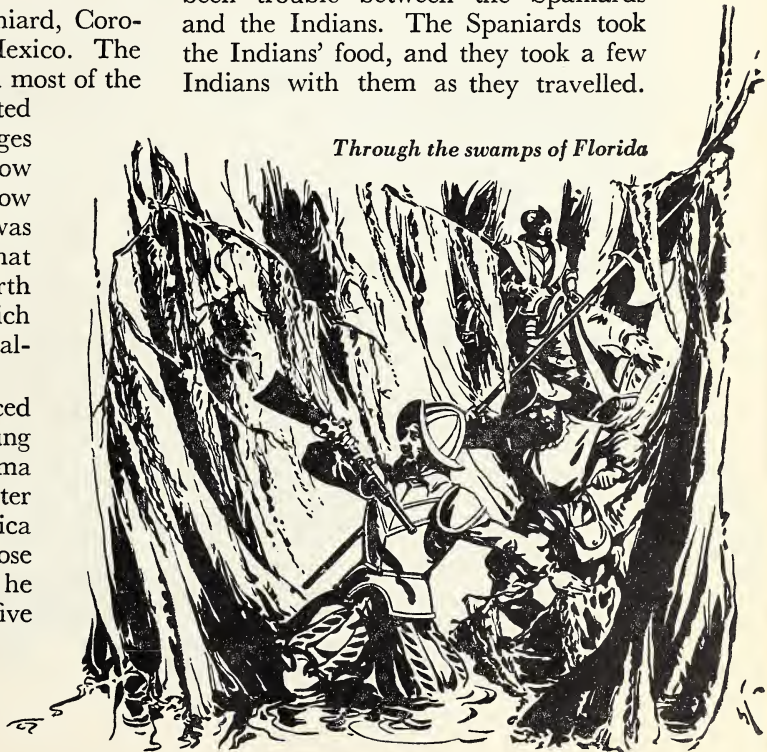
De Soto was an experienced explorer. As a very young man he had been in Panama when Balboa was there. Later he had been in South America with Pizarro. Now he chose his men carefully. When he landed in Florida, he had five

hundred seventy men, all with good armor and weapons. He also had two hundred thirteen horses. He did not have much food with him, however. The only foods that could be carried in those days were dry foods such as flour or beans. Not much could be carried even of these things. For this reason, the Spaniards brought a few hogs with them. They could be killed and eaten, but would not have lasted long if they had been used as everyday food. For this the Spaniards counted on getting supplies from the Indians.

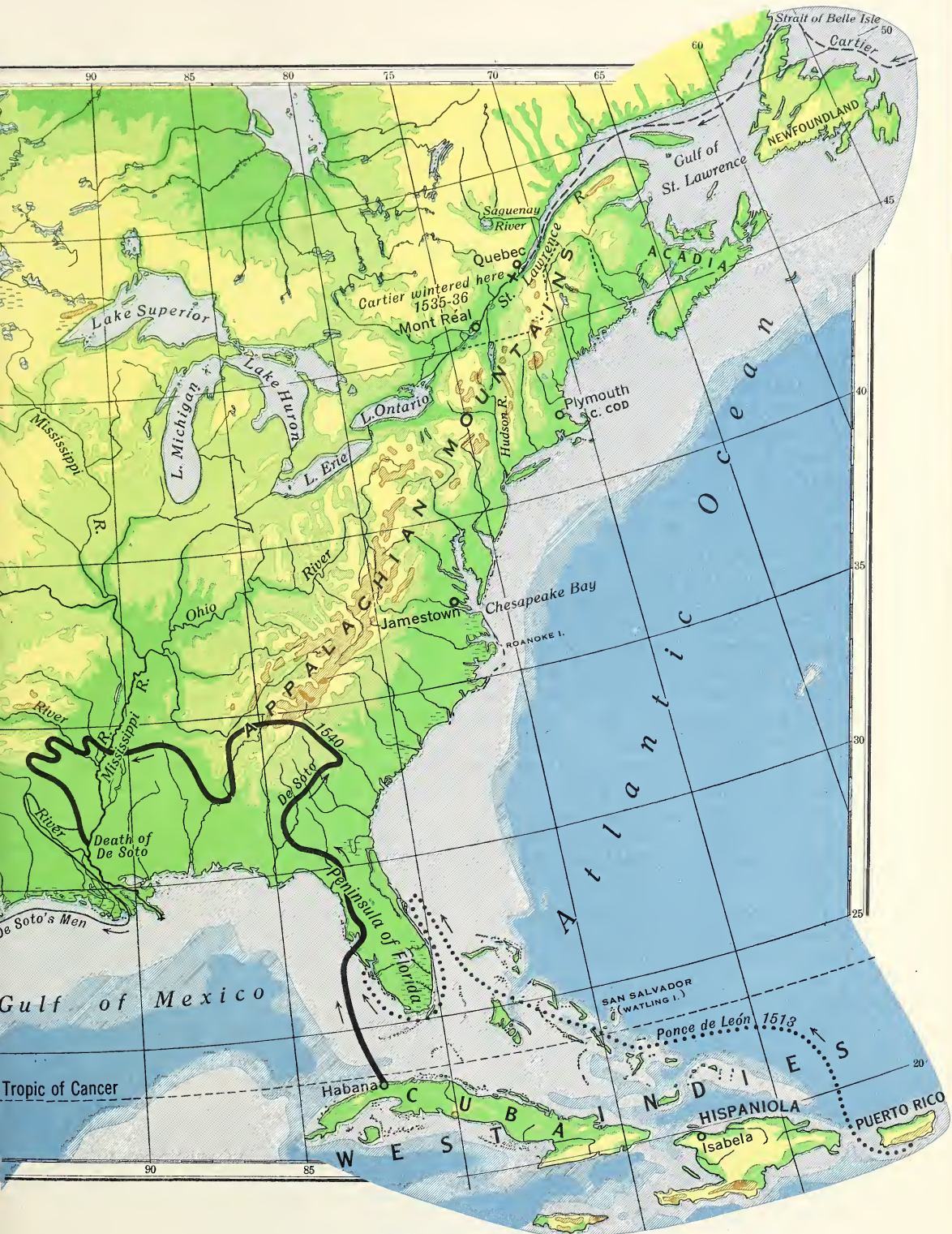
For months De Soto and his men struggled northward on the Peninsula of Florida. Sometimes they waded for miles through water above their knees. Tall cone-bearing trees closed them in on every side. The men were hungry most of the time. They had many fights with the Indians.

You can see why there should have been trouble between the Spaniards and the Indians. The Spaniards took the Indians' food, and they took a few Indians with them as they travelled.

Through the swamps of Florida







Even when De Soto's men took all the food the Indians had, there was barely enough. There were not many Indians, and so there were no great quantities of food grown. The United States today has a number of cities with more people than there were Indians in the whole country. De Soto was travelling through the great forests in the eastern half of the country. There the Indians lived in small villages. Between one village and the next was a wide stretch of forest. The villages were so far apart that sometimes the Spaniards travelled through the forest for days before they reached one. When the Spaniards did come to a village, they took all the food the Indians had.

The Indians raised corn, beans, squashes, and pumpkins on their small farms. When the Spaniards took their food, the Indians of a village could not get any more until the next harvest. They would surely be very hungry, for they would have only the food they could get by hunting. Even when the Spaniards gave them a few ornaments in payment, the Indians could not buy food to take the place of what was lost.

The Spaniards could not go on without the Indians' food. The Indians needed the food themselves. Trouble was sure to come.

De Soto's men also needed guides and men to carry part of their supplies. The Indians had no roads—only trails along which they travelled on foot. Often there was not even a path to show the way to the next village, for Indians seldom travelled to the lands or villages of another tribe.

Every Indian belonged to a tribe. To an Indian, being a Seminole or a Choctaw meant much the same thing as being a Spaniard or an Englishman

meant to a European. Tribes differed in size. They were usually made up of many groups of Indians in villages scattered over a large area of forest. The forest was the tribe's hunting ground, and the warriors would defend it against Indians of other tribes. There was a chief at the head of each tribe.

De Soto usually took the chief of the tribe as one of the guides. Of course the Indians did not like to see their chief led away. The Spaniards took him because the other Indians of his tribe would obey him. When they came to the end of the lands belonging to the tribe, De Soto usually allowed the chief to go home again.

De Soto and his men travelled on and on without seeing anything they considered valuable. They found no gold. This country was not even the kind in which Spaniards liked to settle. Spain, their homeland, is high and does not have much rain. The land over which De Soto travelled at first had heavy rains. In places shallow water covered it for miles. Spaniards did not know how to use land such as this. They did not feel at home on it.

You can follow De Soto's route on the map on pages 28–29. He and his men landed in May of 1539. They spent the rest of that year working their way northward on the Peninsula of Florida. Then they turned to the northeast. They were still on land that was low and often swampy. They had to cross the rivers that flowed toward the Atlantic. There were many smaller rivers, too, that are not shown on the map.

The men were hungry, and many of them were ill. The horses were lean and weak. Always the Indians told of richer country farther on, which the Spaniards could never find. Probably the Indians

did not understand what the Spaniards wanted. To the Indians a country was rich if its people could grow good crops of corn, beans, and squashes, and if there were plenty of animals to be hunted for their meat and skins. They had no idea of riches beyond a good supply of food and clothing. Of course they did not know that the Spaniards meant a country rich in gold and precious stones.

Following the directions of the Indians, the Spaniards turned north and then west. Before they had gone very far in this direction, they came to the mountains. You can see where the highest land is on the map on pages 28-29. Here they found travelling so hard and food so scarce that they turned to the southwest. They continued almost to the Gulf of Mexico. Then they turned to the northwest.

At last the Spaniards came to the Mississippi River. They called it the Rio Grande, which is Spanish for "Great River." They had heard about the great river from the Indians, but

they did not expect a river so wide and swift. One of De Soto's men wrote, "The distance was near half a league: a man standing on the shore could not be told, whether he were a man or something else, from the opposite shore."

De Soto and his men camped for a month beside the Mississippi. They chopped down trees in the forest and built four large boats. Then one morning, while it was still dark, they began crossing the river. Back and forth the boats went over the muddy water. Within a few hours every man and every horse was on the other side.

De Soto found much the same kind of country west of the Mississippi as he had found east of the river. The land was flooded in many places and travelling was difficult. By the time they came to drier land his men must have been very tired of wading in water. At last, as they travelled toward the northwest, they found a pleasant country with plenty of food.

De Soto was nearing the edge of the forest. Beyond were the lands of tall,

Building boats to cross the wide Mississippi



waving prairie grass. Here De Soto learned from the Indians that he could not get corn farther on. The Indians did not grow it because there were too many buffaloes. The buffaloes would eat the corn before it could be harvested. So the Indians lived by hunting the buffaloes. De Soto, however, depended upon corn as food for his men. When he learned that the Indians to the northwest did not grow corn, he turned to the south. In this direction he came to mountains at the place where you see the spot of brown on the map.

At last De Soto turned back toward the Great River. He was ready to give up. He had expected to find rich lands and fine cities such as Pizarro and Cortés had found. Instead he had suffered hardships and had found only Indians who lived in little huts in the endless forests. On the banks of the Mississippi, De Soto fell ill and died. When he realized that he could not get well, he named another leader to take his place. He had not always been kind to the Indians, but to his own men he was a great leader.

De Soto's men tried first to go to Mexico by land, but soon saw that they could not make the long journey. They returned to the banks of the Mississippi and spent the winter there. This was the winter of 1542-1543. During the winter they built seven small ships. Many of the men believed there was no chance for success. They had nothing they needed for building ships, and only a few skilled workmen.

The men cut down trees and sawed them into boards and planks. All the iron articles in the camp were collected and made into nails, anchors, and other necessary fittings for the ships. A man who knew how to make barrels supplied

each ship with two casks for water. Cables were made of mulberry bark. The Indians were friendly and gave the Spaniards many shawls woven of tough fibres. From these the men made sails for their ships.

In the early summer of 1543 the ships were ready. The three hundred twenty-two Spaniards, all that were left of De Soto's men, went aboard. You may be surprised to learn that they really did reach Mexico safely.

De Soto's men did not want this land that they had explored. It had no wealth of gold and silver. It would not produce the crops they wanted to raise. Spain had plenty of land in the New World that suited Spanish settlers much better than this. It was a great many years before any Europeans came to settle on the land De Soto had explored. Then it was settled by people very different from the Spaniards. You will meet them later.

Coronado crosses desert and grass land

Now turn back to the map on pages 28-29. Find the route of Coronado in the southwestern part of the United States. He and De Soto were travelling at the same time, but their experiences were very different.

By the year 1540 many Spanish settlements had been made in Mexico. Here, on the higher area which is shown in brown on the map, the Spaniards found a land that is not unlike Spain. It is high and dry, with hot summers and warm winters. Spanish houses were comfortable and looked as if they belonged here. Spanish crops could be grown, and Spanish ways of farming were good. In addition, the Indians were used to hard work. As you remember, the Aztec ruler in the

city of Mexico had a large area under his rule, and many people lived there. They lived in cities, towns, and villages. When their own rulers were conquered, it was not hard for them to learn to live under the government of the Spaniards and to work for them. By 1540 there were many Spaniards in Mexico who felt perfectly at home in the New World.

Like the Spaniards in the islands, the Spaniards of Mexico had heard rumors of a land to the north. It was called Cibola and was said to have seven fine cities. The Spaniards thought they must be like the Aztec cities of Mexico, and the governor decided to send an expedition northward to explore Cibola. As leader he chose Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, who was a high government officer in Mexico.

The governor called for men to go with Coronado. Three hundred Spaniards and eight hundred Indians of Mexico were willing to go. They were to gather at Compostela near the western coast of Mexico.

Coronado's men set out with flags flying. There were horsemen in armor, well-armed foot soldiers, and hundreds of pack horses carrying food, clothing, and weapons. Everyone was gay as the army set out on that sunny day of early spring in the year 1540.

As you can see on the map on pages 28-29, the land rises steeply from the sea along the western coast of Mexico.

There is only a narrow strip of lowland near the shore. For many days Coronado's route followed the lowland. There was one more Spanish town on the way, Culiacán, which you can find on the map. Here the travellers were welcomed by the people of the town and given large supplies of food. Many Indians from this town went with Coronado, too. They were to be servants and helpers, not part of the army.

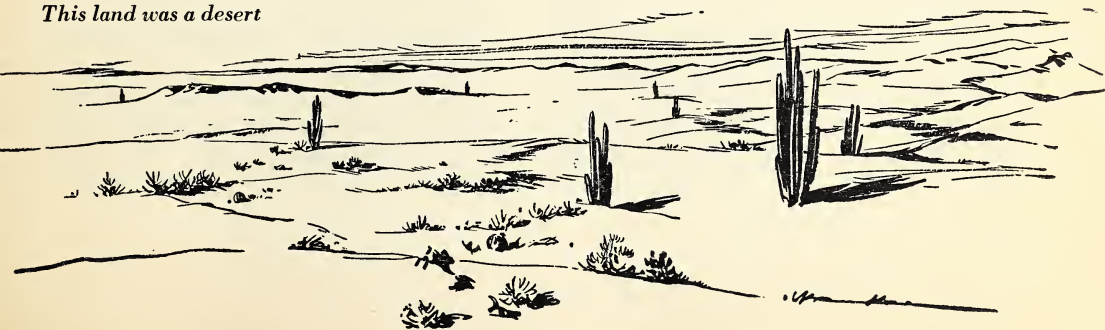
From this place on, Coronado's men were seldom all together. Coronado himself went on to the north, leaving his main army to follow with most of the supplies. Coronado and the men with him began to worry. There was no hint of the fine country they expected. This land was a desert.

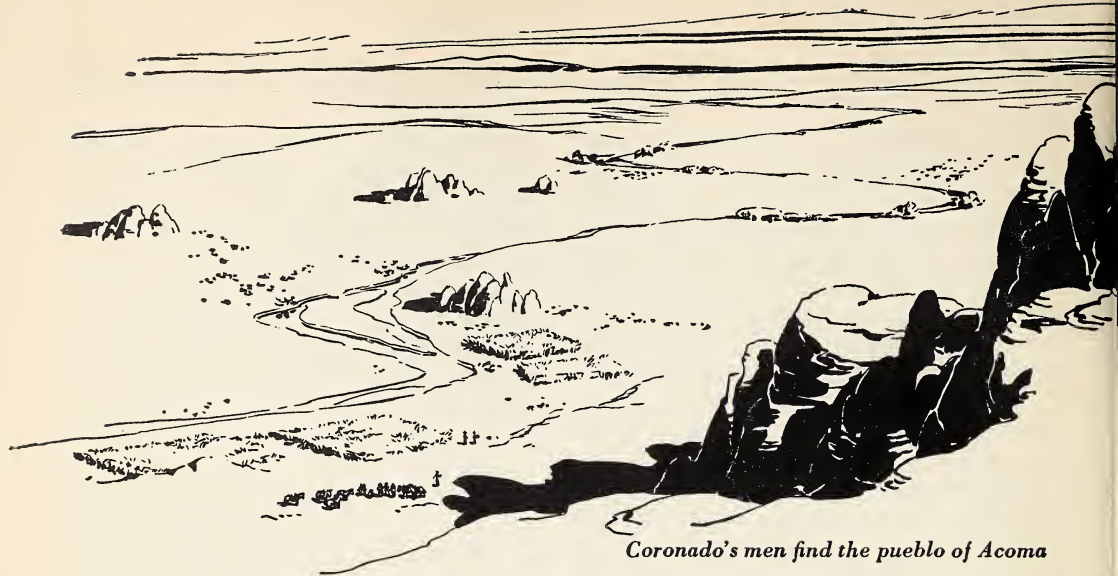
The desert has little rain, and its dry-looking plants stand far apart. Some areas have scattered bunches of grass, but it is hard to see how the Spanish horses found enough to eat.

After a long march northward, Coronado came to the first "city" of Cibola. It was the place marked Hawikuh on your map on pages 28-29. This was no great city such as the Spaniards had expected. One of Coronado's men wrote about it later. He said, "It is a little crowded village, looking as if it had been crumpled all up together."

Hawikuh was a village of the Zuñi tribe of Pueblo Indians. Its ruins can still be seen, though no one lives there

This land was a desert





Coronado's men find the pueblo of Acoma

now. It was made of sun-dried bricks, called adobe. The houses were three or four stories high and were like our apartment houses. A number of families lived in each house. Each story was smaller than the story below. Part of the roof of one story formed a terrace, or porch, for the story above. The village, or pueblo, was near a river, and the Indians raised their crops on irrigated fields. They brought the river water to the fields in ditches.

Hawikuh had only about two hundred warriors, and Coronado captured it easily. He found stores of food, which he needed badly. This town became his headquarters for some time.

In the meantime Coronado's main army was coming northward from Mexico. All the men were walking, because the horses were needed to carry packs. After many adventures the men reached Coronado's headquarters. From here Coronado sent small expeditions out to explore the country. He still hoped to find the seven great cities of Cibola.

His men found more pueblos, but no great cities. Some of the pueblos were on high, flat-topped hills called mesas. They were always near a stream that could be used for irrigation. No one lived on the desert land between one pueblo and the next.

The Indians of the pueblos lived well. Their houses were more comfortable than those of most Indians. They raised good crops of corn, beans, and squashes on their irrigated fields. In addition, they hunted the desert animals for meat and gathered piñon nuts from a kind of small pine tree that grows on the higher land. Their clothes were of cotton, like the clothes of the Aztecs, or of well-prepared skins. They made good pottery dishes and large jars for water or for storing food. They also made fine baskets, woven from grass. Their ornaments were made of turquoise, a beautiful greenish-blue stone.

To most Indians all this seemed great wealth, but it did not seem like wealth at all to the Spaniards. They were



deeply disappointed because they had not found another land like Mexico.

The Spaniards had expected to travel on to the north when they left Mexico. One of Coronado's exploring parties found a reason why they could not do so. Indians had told about a great river to the northwest, and Coronado sent out a party of men to look for it.

These men travelled for many days across a desert country. They had to carry food with them, for no Indians lived here and there was no food to be had. Water was scarce, too.

At last the men came to a very deep, steep-sided valley. Far, far below they saw a stream. It seemed tiny to them, but the Indian guides had told them it was a large river. The Spaniards wanted to get down to the river, but they could find no way.

The Spaniards had discovered the deep gash in the earth which we now call the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. They could not cross it, and their Indian guides told them that if they tried to go on along the top of the canyon they would find no water for days at a time. They went back and reported to Coronado. They told him it was impossible to travel in that direction.

Another expedition sent out by Coronado found a pueblo on top of a high mesa. It could be reached only by a steep stairway cut in the rock. This was

the pueblo of Acoma, which is still a little Indian town. Acoma is believed to be the oldest town in the United States in which people still live.

There were other pueblos, and Coronado decided to move to one of them for the winter. All the Indians went to live with friends in the other pueblos and left their homes for the Spaniards. This village stood beside the Rio Grande. As you remember, De Soto called the Mississippi the Rio Grande. This was not the Mississippi, but the river that we still call the Rio Grande.

During the winter Coronado met an Indian who came from a land far to the northeast. The Spaniards could talk with him only by signs. They thought he was telling them of a rich land with many people, much gold, and a powerful ruler. From other Indians, too, they heard of a land called Quivira that was somewhere farther east.

In the spring Coronado started for Quivira with part of his men. Riding toward the east, they soon left behind the desert and the mountains. Level land covered with grass stretched away as far as they could see. Great herds of buffaloes grazed on the grass lands. There were so many that the Spaniards could scarcely believe their eyes.

The Indians here were very different from those who lived in the pueblos farther west. The Spaniards said these

Indians lived like Arabs. They meant that the Indians lived in tents and moved their homes from place to place. As herds of buffaloes wandered over the grass lands, they were followed by the Indians. They did not farm but made a living by hunting the buffaloes. Their food was almost entirely buffalo meat. Buffalo skins were used to make clothes, bedding, and tents. When the Indians moved, they made their belongings into bundles, which they tied to the tent poles. Dogs dragged the poles with the bundles tied to them.

The Indians told Coronado that Quivira was to the north. They also said that it was not a rich country, as he had been told earlier. Coronado decided to go there and see for himself. With only a few men, he started north. The Indians sent guides to show him the way. At last Coronado reached the land of Quivira and found only a large Indian village of straw huts.

Turn back to the map on pages 28-29 and notice how near Coronado came to the farthest point of De Soto's route. Coronado heard from the Indians about the Spaniards who had been only a short distance away to the east. As you learned on page 32, De Soto turned back because he heard that the Indians beyond did not raise corn. Coronado and his men lived very well in this land that De Soto was afraid to enter. Like the Indians of the grass lands, he and his followers hunted buffaloes and ate the fruit they found growing wild.

From Quivira, Coronado went back. He had found no wealth and saw no reason why he should try to win this land for Spain. He had traced down all the rumors of rich lands, and none had proved to be true. Although Coronado himself believed that his great expedi-

tion had failed, it was very important in American history. It gave Spain a claim to the whole southwestern part of the land that is now the United States. Spanish settlers later went to the land of the Pueblo Indians. Farther on in this book you will hear much more about the Spaniards who settled in this part of the continent.

Cartier explores the St. Lawrence

While De Soto and Coronado explored the forests, desert, and grass lands, another explorer was busy far to the north. This was Jacques Cartier, who came from France. He reached America first in 1534, with two ships.

Like the Spanish explorers, Cartier had heard rumors. French fishing boats came regularly to the fishing grounds near Newfoundland. The fishermen knew there was a large body of water stretching to the west from Newfoundland, with land to the north and south of it. Cartier believed that this might be a strait leading to the Pacific Ocean.

Cartier's ships reached Newfoundland in the middle of May. He was not pleased with what he first found in America. Spring had not yet come to this northern land. There was ice along the shores. Fogs hid the land, and storms made the sailing dangerous. When Cartier's men could see the shores, they found them rocky and bare or so sandy that the ships could not come near them. The islands along the coast were almost covered with birds.

Cartier and his men sailed along the coast of Newfoundland. Then they crossed the strait to Prince Edward Island and explored the southern and western shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Here they saw forests of cone-bearing trees and broadleaf trees. The

kinds of trees they saw were cedar, yew, pine, elm, ash, and willow. Cartier found here many Indians who lived by fishing and hunting for seals. These Indians also raised corn and beans.

During the summer of 1534 Cartier explored the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and took possession of the land for France. Then he went home to report what he had found. The next summer he came back with three ships. This time he travelled nearly five hundred miles up the St. Lawrence River. He liked the country he saw. The trees and the fruit he found growing wild reminded him of France. The Indians were friendly and brought gifts of fish, corn, and pumpkins, which the Frenchmen enjoyed. Cartier gave them knives and other gifts in return. The Frenchmen visited one Indian town of about fifty large houses. The houses were covered with flat pieces of bark, and several families lived in each one. There was a log palisade, or high fence, around the little town.

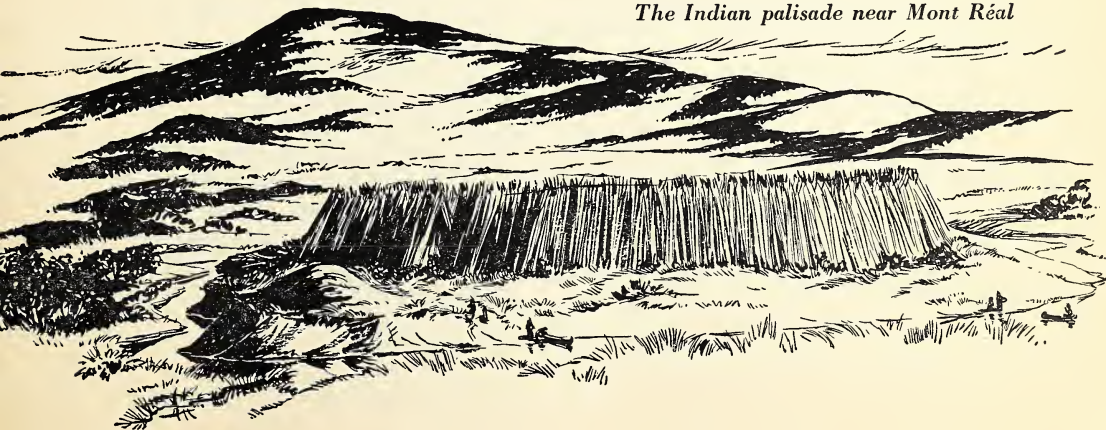
The Indians took some of the Frenchmen to the top of a low mountain near by. From there they could see a long way over the surrounding country. Cartier named the mountain *Mont Réal*, which was French for Mount Royal. We still use Cartier's name for it.

That winter the Frenchmen stayed in their ships at the place marked on the map, pages 28–29. They must have had an unhappy winter, for snow and ice lay deep around the ships, and most of the men were sick. The next summer, 1536, the ships returned to France.

In 1541 Cartier came again to the St. Lawrence. Both De Soto and Coronado were then on their long expeditions. This time Cartier guided a party of settlers to the New World. Very little is known about the settlement, but it seems to have been badly managed. We know that it failed and that the settlers returned to France.

Cartier did not find any passage to the Pacific, but he added greatly to European knowledge of North America. He also gave France a claim to a very large area. When an explorer discovered a river, it was generally agreed that he might claim the entire river valley for his country. This included the valleys of all the tributaries as well as the valley of the main river. Turn back to the map on pages 28–29 and find the St. Lawrence. You see that it flows out of Lake Ontario, the last of the five Great Lakes. Cartier's discoveries thus gave France a claim to the Great Lakes and to all the land from which rivers flowed into the lakes.

The Indian palisade near Mont Réal



The History Workshop

History is more than a story of the past. It helps us to understand the way things are today. We live as we do today because of things that happened hundreds of years ago. Probably our country and our ways of living would be quite different today if Spain had explored and settled the Atlantic seaboard, making the people of the United States more Spanish than British in ancestry. The more causes and results you can trace, the more you will enjoy your study of history.

A time chart for American history

If you wish to see clearly how one event led to another, you need to be sure of the order in which the events took place. For this you will need to make a time chart. There are many ways of making time charts. You may like to have your own or one on which the whole class works together.

Look at the time chart on the inside of the cover of this book. The artist made the chart to show both when and where each event took place. He uses arcs to mark off the centuries, and lines to mark off the three parts of America. He uses small crosses to show about what time in each century each event happened.

Plan to start your chart with Columbus. The history of the Americas really begins with his voyage in 1492. All the explorers you have read about started on their trips within fifty years after the first voyage of Columbus. Decide which of the events of these first fifty years were most important and draw a picture to stand for each one of them.

There will be a time chart exercise in each *History Workshop* in this book. If you are making a history notebook, make each time chart on a separate page. You may like to use colored sheets for the time charts. These may be punched for looseleaf notebooks or fastened into your notebook with scotch tape. Colored time charts are easy to locate.

The history of your own community

What would you have seen if you had been exactly where you are now on the day that Columbus arrived in the West Indies? Would you have been in the midst of a great forest, or would you have looked across open grass lands? Would the land itself have looked as it does now? In some places there has been little change. In other places shore lines have changed, and rivers have found new courses. People have changed the land, too. They have levelled off hills and filled in low places. They have dug canals and built dams across rivers to form lakes.

If you had seen any people on that long-ago day, they would have been Indians. Perhaps there was an Indian village where your town is now. Perhaps Indian women harvested corn and beans and squashes where your garden is, or an Indian man shot a deer or some other wild animal where your school building stands. Have Indian arrowheads or tools ever been found in your neighborhood?

The history of the world

Where do the following events of world history fit into your time chart? Use an encyclopedia to find out why each was important. Pick out from the list the events which had some effect upon the history of America.

1394—Henry the Navigator is born.

1431—Joan of Arc is burned.

1453—Turks take Constantinople.

1476—Caxton sets up his press.

1485—Battle of Bosworth.

1492—Moors are expelled from Spain.

1499—Erasmus comes to England.

1516—Sir Thomas More writes *Utopia*.

1517—Luther begins the Reformation.

1529—Turks besiege Vienna.

1531—Church of England established.

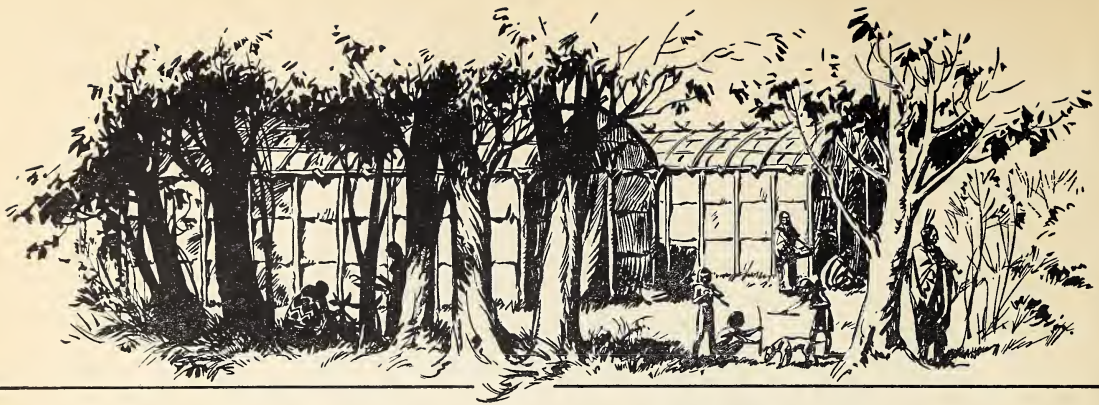
1536—Calvin preaches at Geneva.

1540—Jesuit Order is formed.



THE FOUNDING OF COLONIES

in the New World



The Founding of Colonies in the New World

How People Lived in the Earliest Settlements

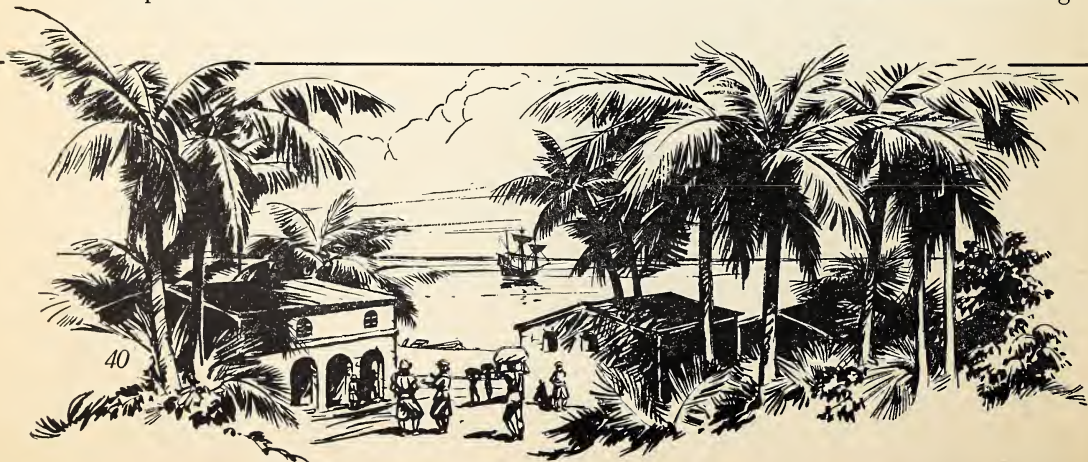
You have learned how Europeans explored America and claimed parts of it for their own countries. Now you are going to read about the settlers who came here to live. First you will meet Spanish and Portuguese settlers, who were the earliest ones to come. Then you will meet English, French, and Dutch settlers. Later you will meet settlers from other European countries. Everywhere you will see them trying to find out what the New World has to offer and how to make a living in it.

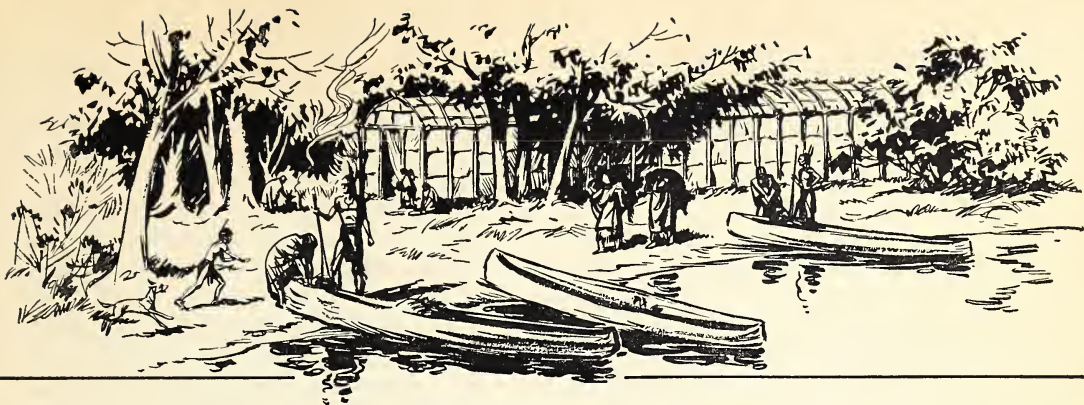
For more than fifty years the Americas remained almost wholly Spanish and Portuguese lands. As you know, Columbus brought the first settlers to Hispaniola in 1493. Within the next

twenty-five years Spanish settlements were started in all the larger islands of the West Indies. Then settlement spread to Central America, and several little towns grew up there.

Within less than thirty years after Columbus made his first voyage, there were Spanish settlers in Mexico and northern South America. Far away to the south there were little Portuguese settlements along the coast explored by Cabral. A little later Pizarro conquered the Inca Empire, and Spaniards went to live in the highlands of western South America. You can find all these areas on the map on page 10.

As you know, the very first Spaniards who came to America were looking





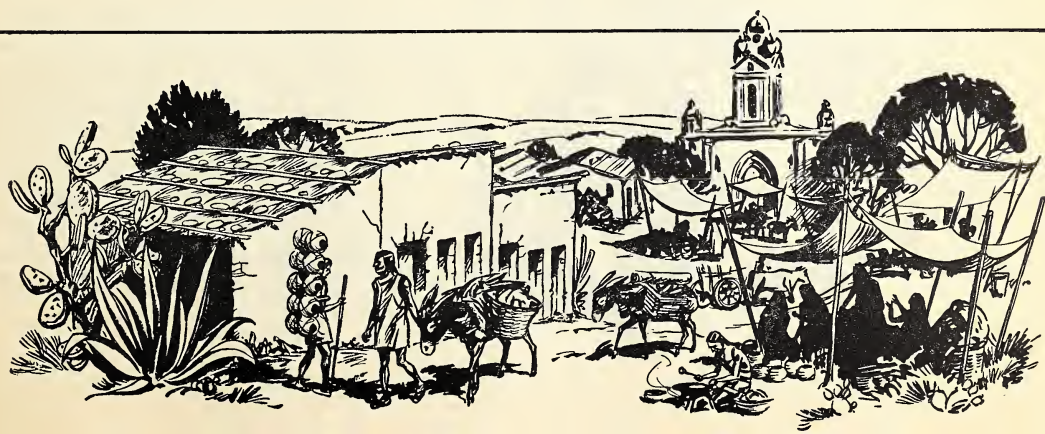
for a way to eastern Asia. By the time they had learned that America was a New World, they had begun to see that this New World itself might be valuable. They built little Spanish towns, with stone houses, churches, and forts. Many brought their wives and children and made the New World their home. On the lowlands along the warm coasts and on the islands of the West Indies most of the Spaniards became farmers. They brought sugar cane, orange trees, plants that produce spices, and banana plants to these lands. Here they began to grow the products that they had hoped to get from the Indies. The Portuguese who had started farms in South America grew the same crops, especially sugar cane.

The farms of the Spanish and Portuguese were the kind called *plantations*. A Spaniard who wished to farm was given a large area of land, covering, per-

haps, several square miles. The plantation owner planned the work and brought the plants that were to be raised. He did not expect to do much of the work himself. People of Europe were not used to hot tropical sunshine; they thought they could not work out of doors in a hot region such as northern South America.

At first the plantation owners thought they could get Indians to do the work, but the Indians of the islands and the lowlands along the coast were not used to hard, steady work. Many of them became ill and died. Others ran away.

The Spaniards and Portuguese soon found that they could not get enough Indians for plantation workers. Then they brought Negroes from Africa to work on the plantations, because these people had lived even closer to the equator and were used to the tropical sun. When a sea captain brought a shipload



of Negroes from Africa, the plantation owners paid for them. The Negroes were not paid. They were given food and other things they must have for a living. They were not free to leave the plantation owner to work for someone else, but the plantation owner could sell them to someone else if he wished. People were forced to work whether they were willing or not, and in return were given only a place to live and their food and clothing. Such people were called *slaves*. At that time few people in the world thought there was anything wrong about keeping slaves.

The settled areas on the higher lands of Mexico and South America were very different from those on the lowlands. At the start, these areas had had a much larger Indian population. Here lived the Aztecs and Incas and other Indians who were used to hard

work. Their lives were not so simple as those of the Indians on the islands and lowlands.

The Spaniards who explored the highlands of Mexico, Central America, and South America found gold and silver. The Indians who lived on the highlands were already mining gold and silver. The Indians used these metals for making ornaments and valued them for their beauty. To the Indians they did not mean money and wealth as they did to the Spaniards. The Spaniards sent their gold and silver to Europe. In Europe gold and silver would buy many things a Spaniard wanted.

At first most of the Spaniards who came to the highlands were more interested in mining than in anything else. The mining was done by Indians. The miners filled baskets with ore and carried them up the ladders leading out of the mines. Before the Spaniards came, the ore had been taken away from most of the mines on men's backs. In the mines of the Andes Mountains llamas had been used, but these animals cannot carry heavy loads. Now the Spaniards brought donkeys and mules to do the work.

More Indians worked in the mines under the Spanish rulers than under their own rulers, but most Indians still remained farmers. Some kept their own little farms. Others worked on large farms started by the Spaniards. The Indians still raised the corn, beans, squashes, and pumpkins they had always raised. Those who lived southward from Mexico, in the area that extends through

Carrying ore from the Spanish mines



the warmer parts of the Americas, grew tomatoes. The Indians in the Andes had potatoes. The Spaniards brought vegetables and fruits which the Indians had not known earlier. They brought also cattle, sheep, and goats, as well as donkeys and horses. The ways of living of the Indians changed because the Spaniards had come.

Wherever Spaniards settled in America, they brought with them Spanish ways of living, but in the New World these ways of living changed. They changed because the New World was different from Europe. They changed, too, because of the Indians who lived in the Americas.

A Spanish city in Mexico, for example, did not look exactly like a city in Spain. There were Spanish houses built of stone covered with colored plaster, but most of the smaller houses were built of adobe. They were the homes of the Indians and were made very much as the Indians here had always made their homes.

Indians did much of the work in the Spanish settlements. They worked as the Spanish taught them, but they kept some of their own ways, too. The things they made were not exactly as Spanish workmen would have made them. The Indians learned to raise the crops and care for the animals that the Spaniards brought. Many of the Indians learned to do work the Spaniards wanted done and to wear Spanish clothing. The Indians learned to speak the Spanish language, and some of them learned to read Spanish books. They went to Spanish churches and were taught by the Spanish priests.

Wherever the Spaniards went, missionaries went with them. They taught the Indians about the Christian religion



The dates will help you follow the growth of settlement in the New World

and taught them many Spanish ways of living. Thus new ways of living grew up. They were not just like those of either Spaniards or Indians, but had a little of both.

The map above shows where the early Spanish and Portuguese settlements were. The dates on the map tell you when each settlement was started. Instead of saying a colony or settlement was started, we usually say it was *founded*. Thus we should say, for example, that Lima was founded by Pizarro in 1535. You need not learn the names of all the places on the map or the years in which they were founded. The dates are there to show you how fast settlement spread over South America and part of North America.

When a country has many colonies or rules many different people, we may speak of it and its possessions as an *empire*. Within less than a hundred



Scene in a street in old St. Augustine

years the Spanish empire in America extended almost six thousand miles from north to south. It included all South America except the area claimed by Portugal at the east. On the north it extended into the southern part of what is now the United States.

Not all this land was settled, of course. Large areas had not even been explored, but it was all claimed by Spain. In time nearly all of it was occupied and ruled by Spain. This does not mean that the Indians were all killed or driven out, and that their places were taken by large numbers of Spanish settlers. Spaniards did come to all the Spanish colonies, but the Indians, too, remained and learned Spanish ways of living. More Spanish men than women came to the colonies, and many of the men married Indian women. Their children were part Spanish and part Indian. Thus the popula-

tion came to be made up of Spaniards, Indians, and people who were part Spaniard and part Indian.

No boundary lines were drawn at the northern edge of the Spanish empire. Spain claimed the lands that De Soto had explored and called the whole area Florida. Down to the year 1564, however, no Spanish settlements had been founded in Florida. People in other countries of Europe were beginning to think that the Spaniards were not going to use the lands they claimed in southeastern North America.

At this time the peoples of Europe were having many difficulties about religion. For hundreds of years all the people of western Europe had been Roman Catholics. Then many began to question some of the teachings of the church. Those who wished to leave the Roman Catholic church to form other churches were called *Protestants*.

Most of the people of France remained Roman Catholics. The French Protestants, called the Huguenots, were not given freedom of religion in their own country, and many of them left. Some went to England and to other countries of Europe. In 1564 one group came to America to found a colony. They settled in Florida, where you find the words "French settlement 1564" on the map on page 43. The Spaniards thought the French were settling on Spanish land. So the next year a Spanish fleet came and destroyed the

French settlement. A Spanish settlement was then founded a few miles away and named Saint Augustine. Saint Augustine is still there and is the oldest town founded by Europeans in what is now the United States.

From Saint Augustine, Spanish missionaries travelled farther north and founded missions from which they could teach the Indians. Their missions never became Spanish settlements, however. Saint Augustine was very nearly the northern edge of the Spanish empire in eastern North America.

Shall Northern Europe Have a Share in the New World?

You have been reading about the settlements made in America by the Spanish and Portuguese in the sixteenth century, the first century after Columbus landed. During this hundred years Spaniards had founded settlements from Mexico and Florida to southern South America. In Brazil, on the eastern side of South America, there were Portuguese settlements. Far around on the other side of the earth Portugal had built up a great trade with India and the Spice Islands southeast of Asia. Spain had conquered the people of the Philippines and made these islands part of the Spanish empire. You read on page 26 how Spain claimed the Philippines because of Magellan's voyage and a mistake as to where the Line of Demarcation should be drawn.

It seemed to people at the time that Spain and Portugal would soon control the trade of the whole world. It also seemed that these two countries would be able to claim and rule all the newly discovered countries of the earth. At that time people in Europe believed that it was right for Europeans

to conquer any country whose people were not Christians. If possible, they persuaded the people of conquered lands to give up their own religions and become Christians.

Changing ideas in Europe

During this first century after the discovery of America a great change was taking place in Europe. At the time no one realized what was happening, for people usually do not understand changes while they are going on. Before this time the northern Europeans had not been much interested in trade with far-away lands. Now the people of three countries of northern Europe were becoming greatly interested in trade. These people were the French, Dutch, and English. You can find their countries, France, the Netherlands, and England, on the map on page 6.

On pages 36-37 you read how Cartier explored the St. Lawrence River and claimed the land near it for France. You learned also that one attempt was made to found a settlement beside the St. Lawrence, but that it failed. You

learned on page 45 that another French settlement in Florida was destroyed by the Spaniards. French fishermen continued to come to the fishing banks near Newfoundland, but not until a little later was the first successful French settlement founded. Dutch attempts to win a share in the Americas also came a little later.

Almost from the beginning the English rulers and sea captains were interested in America. On page 17 you read how Cabot sailed along the eastern coast of North America in 1497. He and his men were probably the first Europeans to see North America, except for the Vikings who had been here five hundred years before. Cabot's voyage gave England a good claim to the eastern part of the continent. The Spanish rulers, however, claimed all of the Americas except the part on Portugal's side of the Line of Demarcation.

No one was sure just how much land countries should have a right to claim because they had discovered and explored a part of it. The people of northern Europe thought the whole New World and the islands near Asia were too much for Spain and Portugal to claim. There was enough land for other countries to have a share. In fact, there was more land than the Spaniards and Portuguese could use.

Two new ideas about rights to land were developing. One of these was that a country must occupy new land in order to keep its rights. That is, settlers must come and the country must really make use of the land. Spain had not tried to occupy eastern North America north of Florida. The people of other countries believed, therefore, that they should have a right to found settlements on land that was not in use.

According to the second idea, an explorer who discovered a river could claim its whole valley for his country. This idea became more important later. The earliest settlements were on the coasts. The right to river valleys became important when boundaries were being drawn within the continents.

The people of northern Europe also wanted trading rights. Up to this time most people had not believed that everyone should have a right to trade anywhere in the world. One country claimed the right to trade in an area, just as it claimed control of an area of land. If you remember these things, they will help you to understand the difficulties that came up among the European countries that were interested in trade and in the founding of colonies in the New World.

Englishmen come to America

Cabot, you remember, made two voyages to America for King Henry VII of England. For fifty years the English people did not seem to be much interested in America. Then English seamen began to think of finding a way to the Pacific by sailing to the northwest from England. If there was a way through North America, it seemed most likely to be far to the north, where the land had not been explored. Such a northern route would be safe from the Spanish and Portuguese, for it would be far away from their lands and trading areas. It would also be very close to the shortest possible distance between England and eastern Asia. You can prove this for yourself by measuring on a globe.

From 1546 on, one English explorer after another tried to find this Northwest Passage, as it was called. Every

explorer found his way blocked by ice. More than three hundred years passed before anyone really did succeed in travelling by ship from the Atlantic to the Pacific by this route. The earlier explorers learned much about the north-eastern part of the continent, however, and their journeys strengthened England's claim to part of North America.

In the meantime English sea captains were beginning to trade with the Spanish colonists. They took slaves from Africa to the colonies and traded them for sugar, spices, pearls, and cattle hides. One day a fleet of English ships was in a harbor in Central America. A number of Spanish ships sailed in and attacked them. Only two English ships got away and returned to England. The others were all sunk or captured. Many Englishmen were killed, and others were taken prisoner.

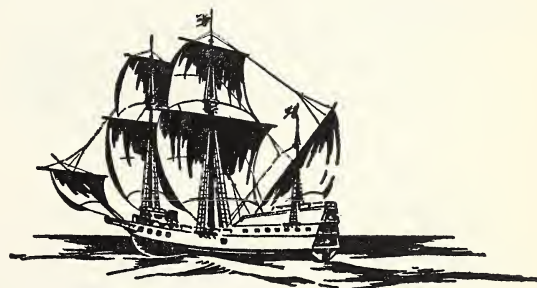
Like other countries of the time, Spain had a law which said that its colonists should trade only with the people of the home country. The Spaniards attacked the English ships because their captains were trading with the Spanish colonists. It was not because the Englishmen were slave traders. At that time Europeans did not think it was wrong to keep slaves or to buy and sell them, provided the slaves came from lands in which the people were not Christians.

Drake sails around the world

A young man named Francis Drake was captain of one of the two English ships that escaped. He was to become the greatest seaman of his day. Drake was very angry about the Spanish attack on the English ships. As soon as he could get ready, he started out from England with two little ships. He was

determined to make as much trouble as possible for Spain.

At this time there was a great difference between Spanish and English ships. The large Spanish ships, called galleons, were heavy, clumsy, and slow. English ships were smaller, faster, and easier to steer. They could also sail more nearly against the wind.



An English ship

The Spaniards were getting much silver and gold from mines in their American colonies. Great galleons loaded with these metals sailed home to Spain. In revenge for the earlier Spanish attack on English ships, Drake sailed into the harbors from which the treasure-loaded galleons set out for Spain. He captured great quantities of gold and silver. Landing in Panama, he climbed the mountains and looked out over the Pacific Ocean. Then and there he decided to return some day and sail his own ship on that ocean.

Drake went home to England with much treasure captured from the Spaniards. He fitted out a fleet of ships and in 1577 started out on his great adventure. He knew it was dangerous, for the Spaniards thought that no ships but their own should sail in the waters west of the Americas.



Drake's ships sailed southward along the eastern coast of South America. Some of the ships were wrecked and some turned back. By the time Drake passed through the Strait of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean, only one ship was left. This ship was named the *Golden Hind*.

The *Golden Hind* sailed northward along the coast of South America. Drake knew that any European ship he saw on the great Pacific Ocean would be his enemy. He counted on the speed of his ship and on his own skill to keep him out of trouble.

If Drake was ever afraid, no one knew it. He even sailed into harbors and captured treasure galleons at anchor. The Spaniards did not expect an English ship in the Pacific, and so Drake was always able to take them by surprise. When Spanish ships attacked him, the fast-sailing *Golden Hind* always got away safely.

Drake sailed on until he had passed the Spanish lands of South America and Mexico. He thought it would not be wise to go back the same way he had come. People still believed that there must be a passageway through North America somewhere far to the north. Drake sailed on, looking for it. When he was almost as far north as the United States now extends, he gave up and turned back.

In a small harbor north of San Francisco Bay, Drake stopped to repair the *Golden Hind*. Then he set sail to the southwest. The ship crossed the broad Pacific Ocean and passed safely through the channels between the islands southeast of Asia. Then it sailed across the Indian Ocean, around the southern tip of the continent of Africa, and northward to England on the Atlantic Ocean. Drake landed in Plymouth in 1580. The *Golden Hind* was the second ship to sail around the world.

New Colonists Find Hardships in the Americas

Although Drake had brought back captured Spanish treasure, the wealth in silver and gold was not the most important result of his trip. He proved to the world that England, as well as Spain and Portugal, had great seamen. He encouraged the English people to try to win a share in America.

English colonies that failed

Beginning while Drake was away on his long voyage, several attempts were made to found English settlements in America. All were failures. Among a group of Englishmen who had tried twice to found settlements was Walter Raleigh. Although he was still a young man when he became interested in

American colonies, he was already famous as a soldier and a seaman.

The ruler of England at this time was Queen Elizabeth I. There is a story that Raleigh had first won the Queen's friendship by laying down his new velvet cloak in a puddle for her to walk across. Whether this story is true or not, the Queen was Raleigh's friend and willing to listen to his plans. Raleigh first got the Queen's permission to found a colony. She gave him a charter, a signed paper which said that he might explore any unoccupied lands and find a place for a settlement.

In 1584 Raleigh sent men to America to find a place for a colony. They came back and reported that they had

found a beautiful land of flowers and fruits and friendly Indians. Queen Elizabeth named the land Virginia and honored Raleigh with a knighthood.

Raleigh found people who were willing to go to America. He fitted out ships and got together the necessary supplies. The settlers set out in 1585. To see where they landed, find on the map on pages 28–29 the line that shows the latitude of 35°. They started their settlement on a small island a little north of this latitude. The Indians called the island Roanoke. In less than a year the settlers ran out of food and went back to England.

In 1587 Raleigh sent out another colony with John White as governor. White's daughter and her husband sailed with the party of one hundred fifty colonists. Virginia Dare, their daughter, was the first English child to be born in the New World. Soon after his granddaughter was born, White went to England for supplies. England was at war with Spain at that time. In that war, the rivalry between Spain and England for sea power was settled. King Phillip II of Spain sent his Great Armada against England. On July 20, 1588, his fleet appeared off Plymouth. In a nine-day battle in the Channel, the Armada was defeated by Sir Francis Drake. This victory weakened the power of Spain and enabled the English, the French, and the Dutch to extend their colonial trade.

Because of the war, White was unable to return to America for four years. When he reached Roanoke Island, the settlement lay in ruins. Not a person was to be found. The word "Croatoan," carved on a tree, told him where they must have gone. Croatoan was the name of a neighboring island. Because

of bad weather, the ship's captain refused to take White there to search for the settlers. Later Raleigh sent ships to look for them, but they never were found. Many people believe they went to live with the Indians.

Successful colonies at last

In 1606 another group of men decided to found a colony in America and were given a charter. They called themselves the London Company. Queen Elizabeth had died three years before. The charter was signed by King James I. It gave the company the right to found a colony anywhere on the coast of America between 34° and 40° north latitude.

On page 51 is a map of Chesapeake Bay and the region around it. To see just where it is, find Chesapeake Bay on the map on pages 28–29. In April, 1607, the colonists sailed into the wide mouth of a river which flows into the bay. They named the river the James in honor of their king. At the place marked Jamestown on the map on the next page, they built a settlement. The following description was written by one of the settlers. Spelling has changed since this was written.

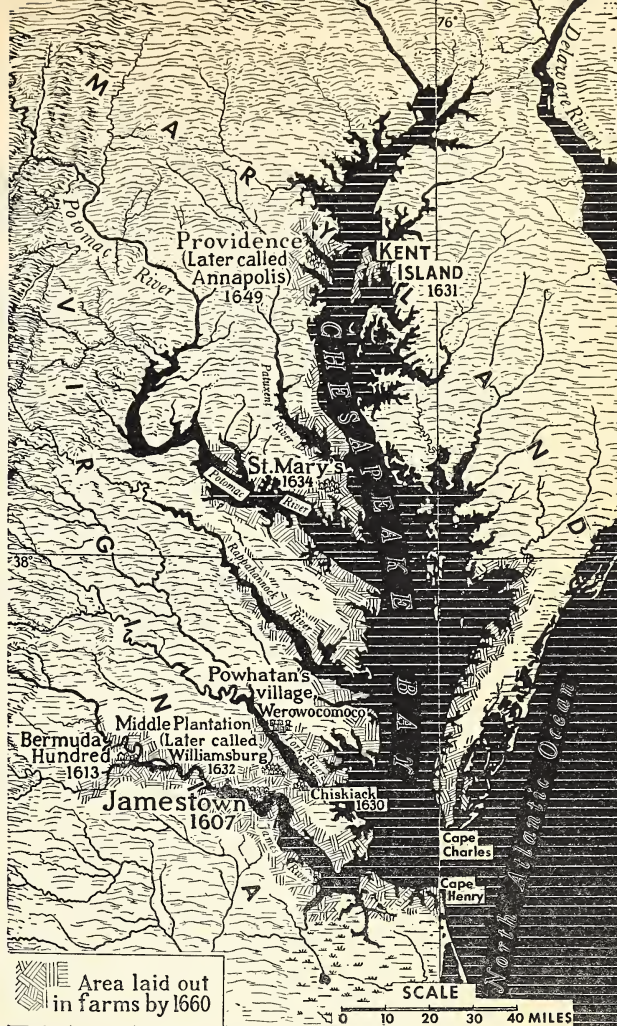
"Wheresoever we landed upon this River, we saw the goodliest Woods as Beech, Oke, Cedar, Cypressse, Wal-nuts, Sassafras, and Vines in great abundance, which hang in great clusters on many Trees, and other Trees unknowne; and all the grounds bespred with many sweet and delicate flowres of divers colours and kindes. There are also many fruites as Strawberries, Mulberries, Rasberries, and Fruitess unknowne. There are many branches of this River, which runne flowing through the Woods with great plentie of fish of all kindes;

as for Sturgeon, all the World cannot be compared to it. There is also great store of Deere both Red and Fallow. There are Beares, Foxes, Otters, Bevers, Muskats, and wild beasts unknowne."

This description tells you how the country looked to the settlers. Everything the writer said was true, and yet the settlers had a very hard time at first. They were in a great forest with only their hands and their tools to work with. They had food to last them for a time, but no knowledge of the country or of the work that must be done.

The first thing the settlers needed was shelter. They had brought canvas for tents, and as soon as possible they built small houses, or huts. These were made with a framework of wood plastered with mud or covered with bark. They were not very good houses, but they would do until better ones could be built. The settlers also planted gardens so that they might have some fresh food.

One man, Captain John Smith, did more than anyone else to make the colony a success. He kept the settlers at work building huts until all had a place to live. He kept them cutting cedar and sassafras so that there would be something to send back in the ships, which were about to return to England. In December of 1607, Smith started out with a few men to explore a tributary of the James River. In an Indian attack, two men were killed and Smith was captured. The Indians took Smith to their chief, Powhatan. In a few days they decided to kill him. Just as they were about to put him to death, Powhatan's young daughter, Pocahontas, rushed forward to save him. Captain Smith was freed and was allowed to return to Jamestown in safety.



The Chesapeake Bay area, with dates to help you follow the growth of settlement

During the next year Smith became the leader of the little colony. He nursed the sick. He traded with the Indians for corn so that the colonists might have food. A well was dug. Thirty acres of corn were planted. Twenty cabins and a fort were built. A glass furnace and an iron furnace were started. Ships came with more colonists.

Two women came in 1608, the first in Jamestown. In the same year eight men arrived who knew how to get pitch from the pine trees and how to burn wood so



Tobacco was planted even in the streets of Jamestown

that it would leave clean ashes. Wood ashes were used in making soap. In 1609 more ships came, bringing six hundred men, women, and children.

After three or four years of hardship the colony began to prosper. The settlers grew more food for themselves and were safe from hunger even when supply ships did not come. At first the settlers did not have land of their own. All the land belonged to the company, and the settlers were expected to work together in farming it. When they were given land of their own, they worked much harder to grow good crops.

In the year 1612 one of the settlers, John Rolfe, planted a field of tobacco. Tobacco is an American plant. Spanish colonists found the Indians raising it and soon began to grow it themselves. The Jamestown settlers thought at first that Virginia was not a good place for tobacco. They did not like the kind they found the Indians using. Rolfe believed that if Virginia tobacco were

carefully prepared it would be as good as the Spanish colonists raised. His first crop proved that he was right.

It was not long before everyone was growing tobacco. Only a little land had been cleared as yet, and for a time tobacco was planted even in the streets of Jamestown. A rule was made that no one could plant tobacco until he had planted corn on two-thirds of his farm. At last the colonists had a product they could sell in England. Tobacco really saved the colony.

More settlers came every year. New settlements were founded on the banks of the James River. Within a few years the settled areas had spread to the banks of other rivers flowing into Chesapeake Bay. You can find some of the early settlements, with their dates, on the map on page 51. Around each settlement land was cleared and laid out in farms.

Six years after Pocahontas had saved Smith's life, she and John Rolfe were

married. As you remember, her father was Powhatan. He was a great chief and ruled the Indians of the whole region around the settlement. After his daughter had married a settler, he kept the Indians from attacking the colony as long as he lived.

You may wish to remember the year 1619. In that year three things happened that were to affect the future of the colony. First, Virginia was given a new charter, which gave the colonists a right to make their own laws. A governor was sent from England, but most of the laws were to be made by an *assembly* elected by the colonists. Never before had there been anything like this in the Americas. In the Spanish and Portuguese colonies the governors or the king made the laws.

The bringing of the first slaves was the second important happening of the year 1619. Tobacco growing requires much work. The farmers needed help. They could not hire their neighbors because every settler was given a farm and wanted to work on his own land.

The large farms of Virginia were called plantations. The owners, who were called *planters*, needed plantation workers. It was still thought to be quite all right to make slaves of people who were not Christians. So twenty slaves were brought in 1619. Others were brought later, but for a long time there were not many. The date 1619 is important because it was a beginning.

Up to this time far more men than women had come to Virginia. Most of them were young men who were not married, and there were very few girls in the colony whom they might marry.

In 1619 the London Company found ninety English girls who wished to come to the New World. All of them

had proposals of marriage very soon after they landed. The bridegroom was expected to pay the fare of the girl he married. Now there could be ninety new homes in Virginia. This third important event of the year 1619 shows that the colonists really meant to stay.

After the colonists had found a good way to use the land, many more people came. Their plantations spread out along the James River and along the other rivers near by. All the early plantations were beside rivers. Each planter had his own wharf, where his crop could be loaded.

While the English colonists were securing a foothold in Virginia, the French were founding their colony in North America. Long before Jamestown was founded, French fishermen were landing near the mouth of the St. Lawrence to salt and dry their fish. To keep the Indians friendly, the fishermen began to trade with them. The Indians wanted knives more than anything else, and so the fishermen traded knives for furs, especially beaver skins. Thus the French fur trade began.

Several French trading posts were built, but there were no permanent settlements until Quebec was founded by Champlain in 1608, one year later than Jamestown, at the point where Cartier had wintered seventy-three years before. Its superb position gave Quebec command of the fur trade.

In the same year, Spaniards from Mexico founded Santa Fe.

Pilgrims and Puritans

You have seen that great changes were going on in the world while the Americas were being explored and settled. Growing knowledge of the world was only one of many changes.

The Founding of Colonies

There was also a change in people's ideas about religion. For hundreds of years everyone in western Europe had belonged to one church. By this time, however, various groups of people had founded new churches.

The idea of many different churches was still new. People had to get used to it. They had to think about it for many years before they decided that each person should have the right to belong to any church he wished. At the time America was being settled, most people thought that everyone in a country should belong to the same church.

England was a Protestant country. Its church was called the Church of Eng-

land. A few people did not wish to belong to the Church of England. They held meetings of their own, but the government and church officials tried to force them back into the church. Finally, some of these people moved to the Netherlands. Others followed them later. Those who moved are usually called the Pilgrims. A *pilgrim* is a person who makes a long journey for the sake of his religion.

After nine years in the Netherlands, the Pilgrims decided to move to Virginia. Two men went to London to make arrangements. They got permission to settle on land that belonged to the London Company. They also got a loan of money to buy supplies and hire a ship to take them.

It was three years before a ship really started for America. The name of the ship was the *Mayflower*. There was not enough money for all the Pilgrims to go at this time. Those left behind were to follow later.

The Pilgrims had permission to settle somewhere south of the Hudson River. They did not wish to be near the settlements in Virginia, and so they planned to settle farther north than Jamestown. In November, 1620, they were near Cape Cod, which you can find on the map on this page. They had no permission to settle here. This area had been given to a company in Plymouth, England. John Smith had explored the coast and named it New England.

The *Mayflower* started south, but the ship ran into shallow water and its captain was afraid it would be wrecked. He refused to go on at this stormy time of year. The Pilgrims would have to stay where they were.

The first Pilgrims went ashore at Plymouth in the middle of December.

The New England area, with dates to help you follow the growth of settlement



Can you imagine the scene? The ship anchors near the shore in the gray, stormy water. A small boat pulls away from the ship. The people in it step ashore on a large rock to escape the waves that break and roll far up the beach. New England in December is far too cold for wading. The land is white with snow. A little way back from shore rises the dark forest, brown and bare on this December day.

Seventy-three men and boys, twenty-nine women and girls, are all alone in the great wilderness. Three thousand miles of stormy, winter ocean lie between them and their old home. Their little ship will not try that long journey before spring. Their friends in England and the Netherlands do not know within hundreds of miles where they have landed. They cannot go back, and no help can come to them.

The Pilgrims are city people. They lived for years in warm, comfortable houses in the neat Dutch city of Leyden. There are no houses here. There is nothing but winter woods and patches of brown grass and the gray waves beating on the shore. Whatever shelter they have, they must make for themselves. If their food gives out, they must find more for themselves or starve. If they have forgotten something they need, they must do without it.

The Pilgrims called their settlement Plymouth. The first house was started on Christmas Day. No one is quite sure what the first houses were like, but they seem to have been huts made partly of earth. The roofs were of bark or grass. The first winter was a hard



Squanto teaches the settlers to plant corn

one. During that long, cold winter half of the Pilgrims fell ill and died. In early spring the governor, John Carver, died. William Bradford was chosen to take his place and was the leader of the colony for many years.

At last the long, cold winter was over. One day in March an Indian came into Plymouth and called out, "Welcome, Englishmen!" The settlers were surprised to hear an Indian speak English. He said his name was Samoset. He had learned a little English from fishermen who stopped along the coast to dry their fish. Later Samoset came again with a friend whose name was Squanto. He had been in England for several years and spoke good English.

Without Squanto's help the colony might have failed. First he took some of the settlers to visit the chief of his tribe. The chief and the settlers agreed to be friends. His tribe, the nearest one to Plymouth, never made any trouble for the settlers.

Squanto taught the settlers how to farm Indian fashion. The Indians did not try to cultivate a whole field and plant their crops in rows. They dug up a circle of earth and piled it in a low mound. Then they planted their corn, pumpkins, and beans in the mound. With each handful of seeds, they put a small fish in the ground as fertilizer. The Indians could chop down trees with their stone axes, but it was hard, slow work. When they wanted to make a new field, they girdled the trees. That is, they chopped away a circle of bark around each tree. Then the tree died and sunlight could reach the ground through its branches.

The settlers hunted birds and deer. When summer came, they had wild plants and berries to eat. After they had harvested their crops, the Pilgrims planned a thanksgiving feast. They invited the friendly Indians to come and share it. The men hunted game, while the women prepared pies, cakes, and fruits. The Indians brought deer.

During the next few years more settlers came. Ships brought food, tools, and farm animals from England. No time was ever again as bad as that first winter, but the troubles of the colony were not over. At first the settlers worked together to grow food. No one had land of his own. This way of working was not very successful. In 1623 the land was divided and each settler had a farm of his own. The farms were small. One man could not care for much land when all the work had to be done by hand. Each man worked harder and planted larger areas, however, when he knew that his own family would have the food he raised. The settlers had larger crops and more to eat after the land was divided.

The map on page 54 shows a number of new settlements made in 1623. Those far northward along the coast were little villages of fishermen and fur traders. From that year on there were new settlers almost every year around Plymouth and along the coast.

Eight years after the Pilgrims arrived at Plymouth, a new group of settlers came to Salem. Like the Pilgrims, they left England because they did not agree with all the teachings of the Church of England. They called themselves *Puritans*, and their beliefs were not very different from those of the Pilgrims.

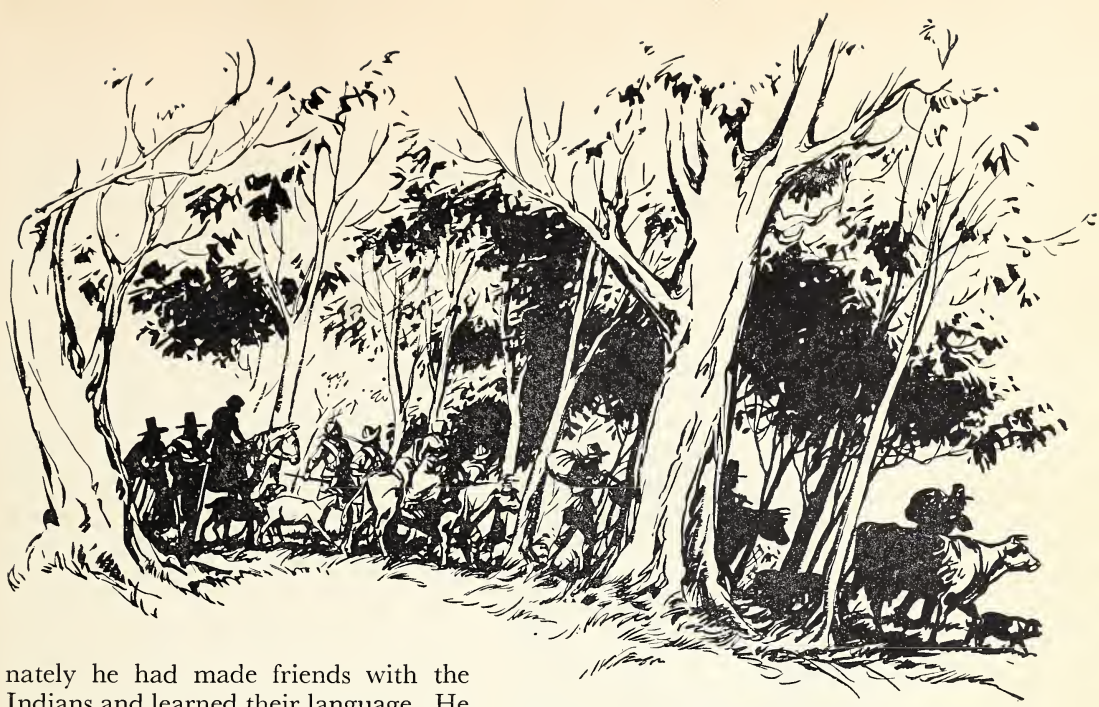
The next year a new company, called the Massachusetts Bay Company, was chartered. Under its charter more Puritan settlements were made around Massachusetts Bay. Some of them are shown on the map on page 54. Boston outgrew all other New England towns.

Through the forest to new homes

Other colonies were started by people who left Massachusetts. You will remember that most people thought everyone in a country should have the same religious ideas. The Puritans thought that Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth should be Puritan colonies. People who had different religious beliefs should go somewhere else.

Among the early settlers in the Massachusetts Bay Colony was one named Roger Williams. He disagreed with many of the beliefs of the Puritans. Most important of all to the Puritans, he did not think the church should be part of the government, or that laws should be passed about religious beliefs.

Finally Williams was told that he must leave Massachusetts. It was in the middle of the winter and he could not reach any other settlement. Fortu-



Thomas Hooker leads his people to a new home in Connecticut

nately he had made friends with the Indians and learned their language. He lived with a neighboring tribe of Indians until spring. Then he bought land from them on the shore of Narragansett Bay. Some friends joined him and a settlement was started. Williams named this settlement Providence. You can find it on the map on page 54.

The year Williams founded Providence, Anne Hutchinson came to live in Boston. She began to invite groups of women to her home to talk about the sermons that were preached in the churches. The Puritans soon saw that many of her beliefs did not agree with theirs. Two years later she was asked to leave the colony. She, too, went to the Narragansett Bay region. There she found her husband and friends waiting for her. They founded a group of settlements which came to be called Rhode Island. Later the settlements around Providence joined the colony of Rhode Island.

The settlements around Narragansett Bay grew rapidly. Many people came

who could not have gone to most of the other colonies because of their religious beliefs. You will find the names of some of the towns on the map on page 54.

If you look a little to the west of Narragansett Bay, you will see a number of early settlements. They are grouped along the Connecticut River. The oldest of these settlements started as trading posts. The Indians from a large area to the north could bring furs down the Connecticut River in their canoes. It was not long before other settlers came to start farms.

Thomas Hooker, a minister, led the people of his church from the Massachusetts Bay Colony to the Connecticut Valley in 1636. They followed winding Indian trails for a hundred miles through the forest. Some of them went on horseback. Others walked, driving their cattle and hogs before



The New Netherland area, with dates to help you follow the growth of settlement

them. Pack horses carried their household goods. The settlers found a good place to live beside the river. There they started the town of Hartford.

In the years that followed, many more settlements were founded along the river and on the northern shore of Long Island Sound and the eastern end of Long Island. At first each town had its own separate government. In 1662 the whole group was given a charter as the colony of Connecticut.

Dutch colonists in America

Two years after Jamestown was settled, a Dutch ship sailed along the coast of America. The ship was called the

Half Moon, and its captain was Henry Hudson, an Englishman, who had been hired by a company of Dutch merchants. Even at this late date he was looking for a passage through America. A little north of the latitude of 40° he found a large bay, with a wide stream leading to the north. He followed this stream until he was sure it was only a river. We still call it the Hudson River.

Hudson reported that the region along the river was fine fur country, with many Indians to hunt the fur-bearing animals. Three years later a group of merchants in the Netherlands sent two sea captains to start the fur trade. They built a trading post at the southern end of Manhattan Island.

During the next few years the Dutch traders explored the Hudson and built a trading post as far up the river as ships could go. This was called Fort Nassau. A little later a new post was built at a better location. It was called Fort Orange. The map on this page shows the dates of these settlements.

In 1621 a company was chartered by the government of the Netherlands. It was to be called the Dutch West India Company. The company was given the right to trade and to found settlements in America between 40° and 45° north latitude. The English protested about this. They said that the eastern coast of North America, north of the Spanish settlements, was theirs by right of discovery. The Dutch said that the English had not occupied the land around the Hudson and Delaware rivers and so they had lost their right to it.

In 1622 the Dutch West India Company sent two groups of settlers to America. One group went to the trading post at Fort Orange. The other group founded Fort Nassau on the

Delaware River. The next year thirty families came. Some went to Manhattan, some to western Long Island, some to the Delaware River, some to the Connecticut River, and the rest to Fort Orange.

In 1626 a government was set up and Peter Minuit was sent to be governor of New Netherland. New Netherland was the name given to all the Dutch settlements. Governor Minuit bought Manhattan Island from the Indians who lived there. He called the Manhattan settlement New Amsterdam. Amsterdam is a city in the Netherlands.

A fort was built at New Amsterdam. Around it were clustered the first houses and offices. Farms were laid out along the southern shores of the island. Two windmills were built to grind grain. The centre of the island was used for pasture. Much of it was still covered with woods.

Within a few years a number of settlements had grown up on Manhattan

Island, on the west bank of the Hudson, and on Long Island. These settlements had few people, however. The company had a hard time finding settlers willing to come. In 1629 the Dutch West India Company offered a large area of land to anyone who would bring fifty settlers. The owner of the land was called a *patroon*. Settlers were to pay rent to the patroon and work for him part of the time. This arrangement also failed to bring many settlers.

Peter Minuit quarrelled with the company and returned to the Netherlands. A company of Swedish merchants wished to found a colony in America and hired Peter Minuit to be its leader. In 1638 he brought a Swedish colony to the Delaware River. There he bought land from the Indians and founded a settlement which he called Christina. Other



New Amsterdam

settlements were made later. Together they were called New Sweden.

From the first the Dutch West India Company and the Dutch government protested against the Swedish colony. They said that Sweden had no claim to the land at all. Swedes had not discovered the region or explored it. They could not say the land was unoccupied, for the Dutch had already built trading posts there.

The Dutch colonists also had trouble with the English colonists. English and Dutch settlers quarrelled about the fur trade and about boundaries, especially in Connecticut. There were both Dutch and English settlements in Connecticut, as you can see on the map on page 54.

In 1647 a new governor came to New Netherland. His name was Peter Stuyvesant. Three years after he became governor he went to Hartford to meet representatives of the English colonists. As a result of this meeting, a boundary line was drawn between the Dutch and the English colonies.

The next year the Dutch built a fort, called Fort Casimir, on the Delaware River. Three years later the Swedes captured the fort. Stuyvesant then took a fleet to the Delaware and captured the whole Swedish colony. The settlers were to keep their land, but they were to be ruled by the Dutch.

England and the Netherlands were both becoming great trading countries. Their traders quarrelled, not only in North America, but in many other parts of the world as well. Several wars were fought, mostly at sea. In the year 1664 an English fleet sailed into the harbor at New Amsterdam and demanded that the Dutch surrender. The fort had not been kept in good repair and it had only a few guns. Governor Stuy-

vesant wished to fire on the English fleet, but the settlers persuaded him to give up. Thus New Netherland became an English colony.

King Charles II of England granted this colony to his brother, the Duke of York. The former Dutch and Swedish colonies became part of the "Duke of York's Province," and the name of New Netherland was changed to New York.

In the year 1673 war broke out again between England and the Netherlands. A Dutch fleet came and captured New York, but it was given back the next year when the war ended. For the fourth time it changed hands without a shot being fired.

New neighbors for Virginia

One more colony was founded in the very early years of English settlement in America. Before we read about it, we must meet a remarkable family, the Calverts. Sir George Calvert served for many years as a member of the English House of Commons. It was his special duty to inform the members of the wishes of the king, James I, and persuade them to accept them. He became as unpopular as his king. In 1625, Calvert declared himself a Roman Catholic and retired. The king rewarded him by granting him lands in Newfoundland in 1620, and making him a baron, Lord Baltimore, in 1625.

In 1627 Lord Baltimore and his family moved to his colony, Avalon, in Newfoundland, to which he had sent settlers in 1621. He found the winters "too long and vigorous" for farming and asked the new king, Charles I, for lands farther south. A large area along the northern part of Chesapeake Bay was promised to him.

George Calvert died before he could send out his colony. His oldest son, Cecil Calvert, then became Lord Baltimore. He remained in England to look after the business of the settlers. His brother, Leonard Calvert, sailed with the colonists.

The Calverts, being Roman Catholics, were no better liked in England at this time than Puritans. Part of the plan of the Calverts was to found a colony in which Roman Catholics and Protestants would be equally welcome.

The new colony was to be called Maryland. Its southern boundary was the Potomac River. To find this river, turn to the map on page 51. On a day in March, 1634, two ships, the *Ark* and the *Dove*, sailed into the Potomac River. They carried between two and three hundred people who were well chosen and well equipped to found a settlement. These people knew much more about how to live in a new country than the settlers at Jamestown and the settlers at Plymouth had known.

Leonard Calvert started out in a small boat to get acquainted with the Indians in the region and to find a place for a settlement. On the shores of a little stream flowing into the Potomac lived a group of Indians who were planning to move away. Calvert learned that he could buy their whole village. The Indians sold the settlers their land, their houses, supplies of food, and cleared fields. Some of the fields were already planted. The settlers paid for the village with axes, hatchets, hoes, and cloth. The Indians also agreed to be friends with the colonists, and they kept their word.

In a short time the colonists moved out of the Indian village into a town of their own. They named their settlement Saint Mary's. They planted food crops at first, but before long they began to grow tobacco, too. Maryland became another colony of plantations like Virginia. As in Virginia, its plantations were laid out along the wide rivers flowing into Chesapeake Bay.

Calvert buys a village from the Indians



The History Workshop

If you followed the suggestions given on page 38, you have started a time chart and a history of your own community and of the world.

A time chart for American history

Now you have been reading about the first European colonists in the Americas. If you are dividing your time chart into fifty-year sections, you will need two sections for the early settlements.

During the first half-century, 1550 to 1600, you will not find many dates that you wish to remember. In fact, it is not important that you remember any exact date between 1550 and 1600. You need remember only: (1) that during these years Spanish and Portuguese colonies were founded; (2) that English people became interested in settling America; and (3) that several colonies were started by Englishmen, but that they all failed. You may make pictures which show that these things were going on, without giving exact dates.

During the half-century from 1600 to 1650, many important things happened. Some parts of your chart will be more crowded with pictures than others.

The history of your own community

It may be that you can find no events at all to put in your history. If so, you may like to study the natural resources of your region, as they were before the first Europeans came. How could settlers have made a living? Compare these conditions with those in the settlements you have read about.

The history of Canada

Study the time chart on the end pages of this book. What happened in Canada in the period covered by this chapter? What would *you* have done if you had come to your home region knowing no more about America than the Jamestown and Plymouth settlers knew?

The history of the world

Fit these events of world history into your time chart for 1550-1650. Which of them affected the history of America?

- 1558—Queen Elizabeth I is crowned.
- 1564—William Shakespeare is born.
- 1572—St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre.
- 1581—Netherlands becomes independent.
- 1583—Puritan suppression begins.
- 1588—Spanish Armada is destroyed.
- 1601—The East India Company chartered.
- 1611—King James Version issued.
- 1618—The Thirty Years' War begins.
- 1642—Civil War in England begins.
- 1643—Louis XIV crowned King of France.
- 1644—Manchu rule begins in China.
- 1649—King Charles I is executed.

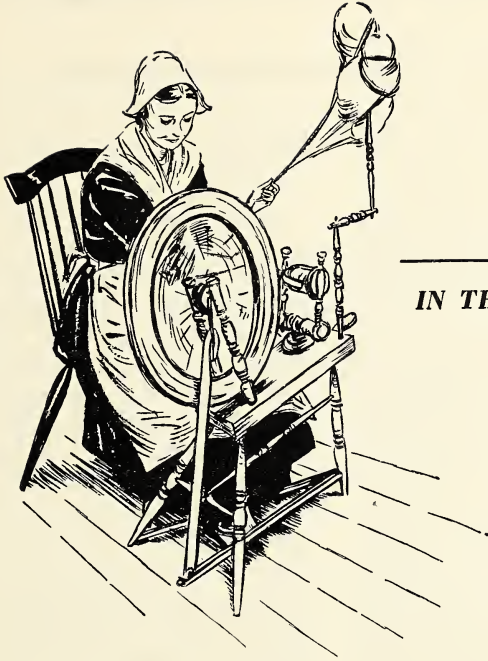
Can you arrange the following events in the correct order?

1. The founding of Jamestown
2. The first Dutch trading posts on the Hudson
3. The first Spanish colonies in South America
4. Drake's voyage around the world
5. The first settlement in Maryland
6. The founding of Quebec and Santa Fe
7. Raleigh's attempts to found a colony
8. The founding of St. Augustine
9. The journeys of De Soto and Coronado
10. The discovery of America

Who were these people?

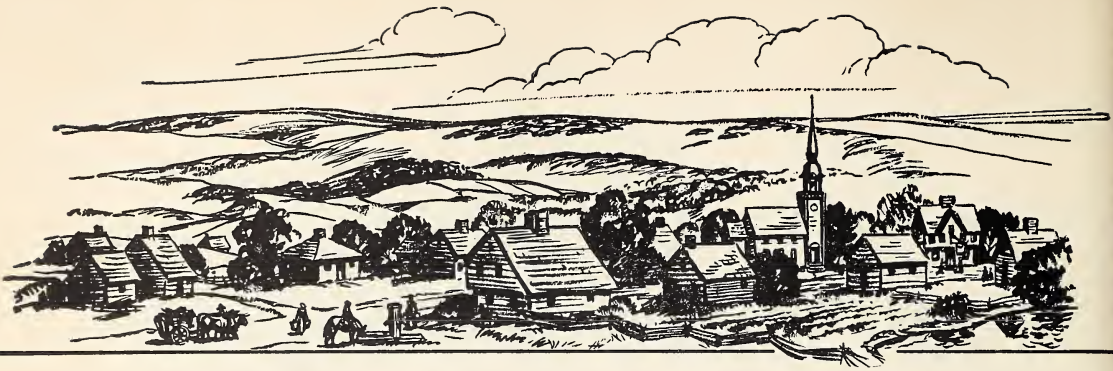
Can you match the people named in the left-hand column with the colonies they helped to found? Be careful. You will need to use some of the names more than once.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Peter Stuyvesant | a. Plymouth |
| 2. Thomas Hooker | b. New Sweden |
| 3. Roger Williams | c. Maryland |
| 4. The Calverts | d. New Netherland |
| 5. Anne Hutchinson | e. Virginia |
| 6. Peter Minuit | f. Connecticut |
| 7. John Smith | g. Rhode Island |
| 8. William Bradford | |



How People Lived

IN THE GROWING COLONIES



How People Lived in the Growing Colonies

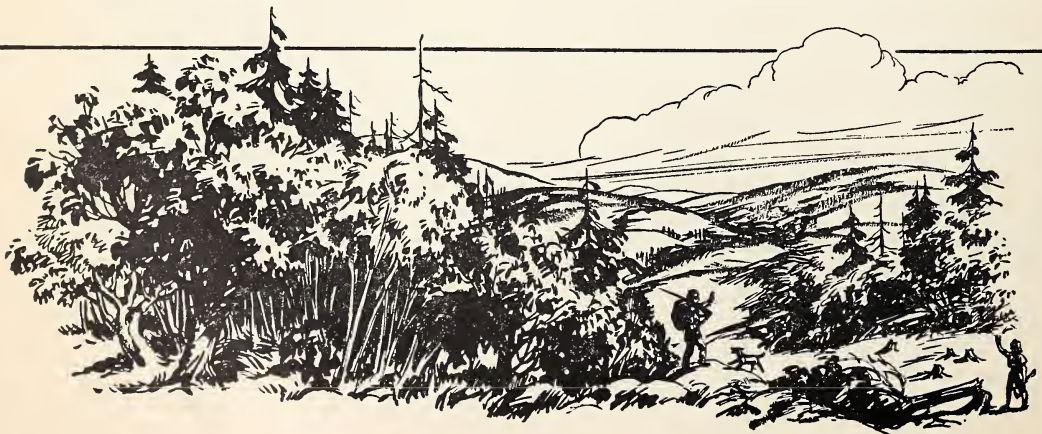
Changing Times in the Colonies in America

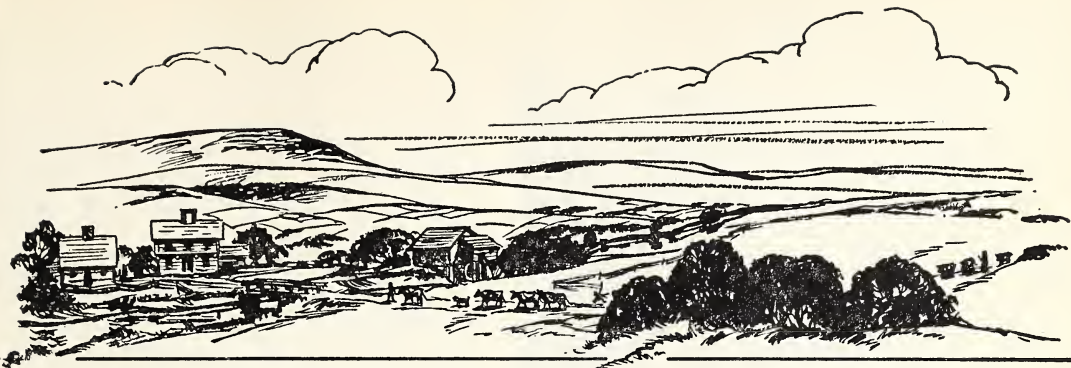
Now you have seen how the first Europeans came to live in the New World. You saw the Spaniards having great difficulties at first. Then it became fairly easy to start new settlements.

English settlements failed time after time, but finally the one at Jamestown was successful. Even there, hardships were great at first, and several times the settlers nearly starved. Once they were on their ship, ready to return to England. Just in time, ships loaded with food came up the river. At Plymouth, half the settlers died during the first winter. Later, the English, like the Spaniards, found it somewhat easier to start new settlements. What was the reason for this?

The answer is that people were learning all the time. It is hard for us now to understand how strange and puzzling the new land was to Europeans. They were used to a land of well-tended farms and busy cities. In the New World they were in a land of great unbroken forests. The only people were Indians who lived in tiny, scattered villages hidden away in the forests. The only farms were the garden patches of these Indians. The only roads were their narrow trails among the trees.

The settlers did not know what crops could be grown successfully. They did not know what parts of the land were healthful, or what natural resources were to be found. They did not know





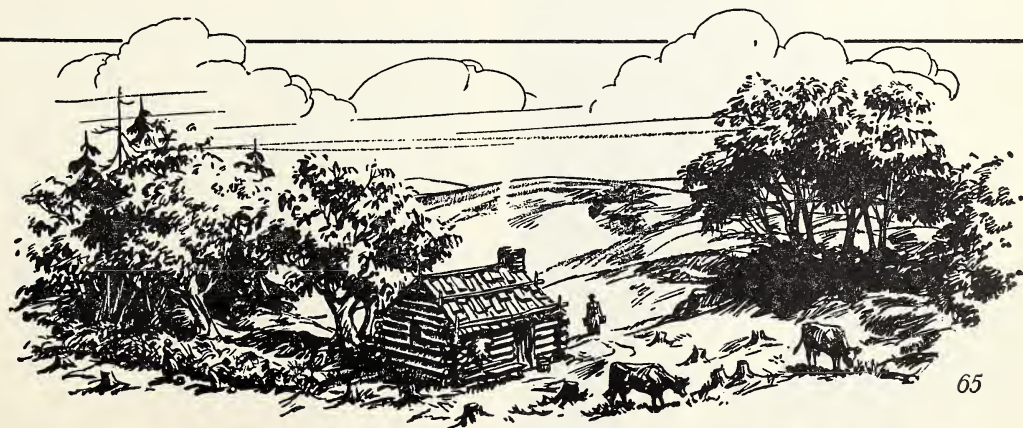
how far the land extended or what it was like, except that huge trees grew everywhere. Even after settlements were started, the forest stood like a dark wall around their little towns and the few acres of their farms.

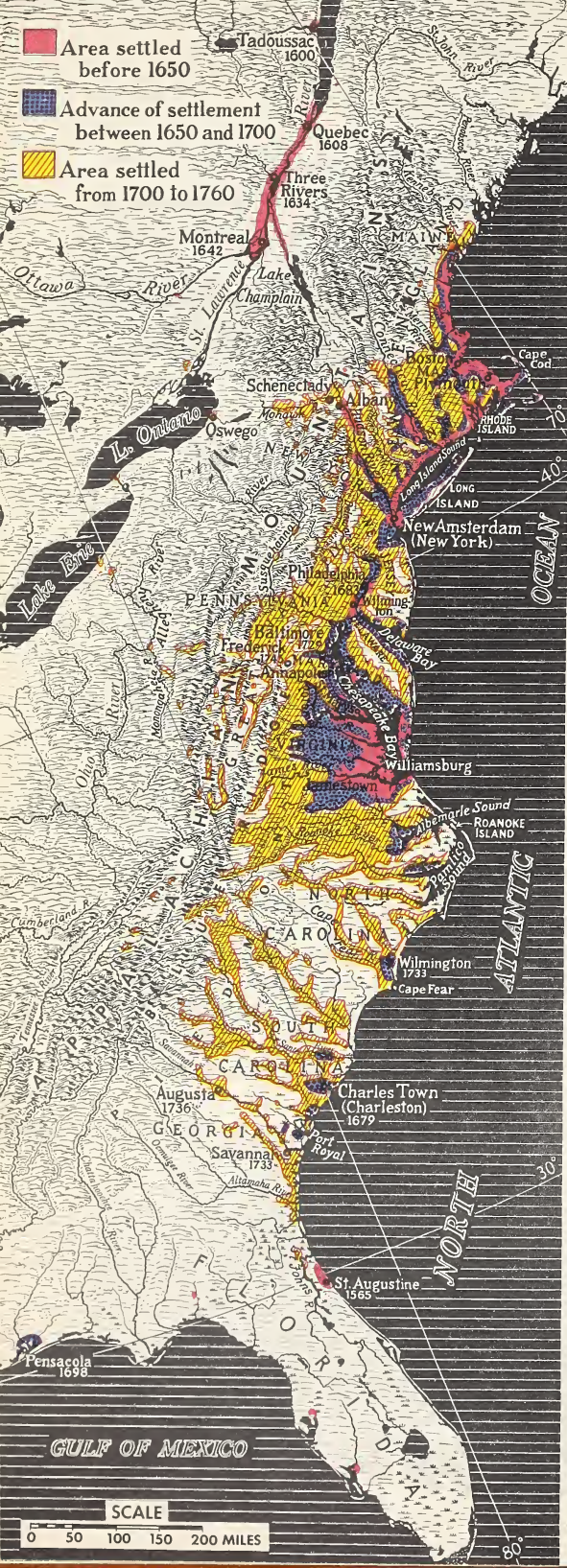
Some of the earlier colonists who gave up and went home had no harder time than the settlers at Jamestown or Plymouth. Perhaps the settlers at these two places were more determined to succeed. Whatever the reasons, they stayed through all the hardships until they had learned how to live in the New World. Even those who came as early as the settlement of Massachusetts Bay Colony and of Maryland had an easier time than those who landed still earlier at Jamestown and Plymouth.

Each new colony benefited by what earlier settlers had learned, even though it had to work out certain problems of its own. It also benefited by having the

earlier colonists as neighbors. The later settlers were not quite alone in this strange New World. The settlers in the Connecticut Valley could reach the Massachusetts settlements if there was need. Even Plymouth was saved from hunger several times by ships that came northward from Virginia.

One of the lessons the settlers learned was this: They must depend upon themselves for a great many things. They might get help, but they could not count on it. They could not count on food being sent them from England, because the trip was too long. Ships were too often wrecked, forced back by storms, or captured by enemies when England was at war. After this lesson had been learned, nearly all settlers became farmers. Even when they did other work as well, they spent enough time farming to produce their own food. Food was the first need.





After they were sure of a supply of food, the colonists looked for things to sell. They wanted money to buy what they needed and had no way of getting it except by selling their products in England. Companies that had paid for new settlements in America expected the people in the settlements to find products to sell. The companies had planned to get their money back, with a profit, by trading with the settlers. The colonists could not set up at once the industries that would provide all their own clothing and furniture. Both the companies and the colonists, you see, wanted products that could be sent from America to England for sale.

Jamestown found its trade product in tobacco. The New England settlers discovered that beaver skins and dried fish were good products to sell. They soon began to send lumber also to England. Like the settlers in Virginia, the people of New England learned to use the natural resources of their region.

At Jamestown, at Plymouth, at New Amsterdam, and at Saint Mary's you saw how a colony started with one little town. Then you saw the settled area begin to spread. Perhaps four or five families went to a spot a few miles away. There they started another settlement of their own. Men from Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay built trading posts far to the north along the rocky coast of Maine and westward in the Connecticut Valley. Dutch settlements spread far up the Hudson. New-comers in Virginia laid out plantations along the rivers near Jamestown.

You can find these little centers of settlement on the map at the left. Look for the symbol that stands for land settled before 1650. You will see that all the settled land is on the coast or

on large rivers. The settlers were not yet fully at home in the New World. Home was still across the ocean in Europe. Relatives and friends lived there, and settlers could hear from them only if they kept in touch with the coast. In order to live, they had to be able to trade with Europe, too.

Now look at the map again. You see that during the next fifty years new settlements were founded farther north and south along the coast. Many gaps between the older settlements are filled in. Settlement also began to spread inland, but most settlers still clung fairly close to the larger rivers. A few miles from the coast the forests still lay unbroken—those dark forests that were endless, so far as the colonists knew.

In the pages that follow, you are going to see the settlers make their

way into these forests. You are going to see them moving by river and Indian trail to find farming land. You are going to see hunters and fur traders riding far beyond the settlements to meet Indian hunters and trappers.

Near the coast you will see that the population has become denser and that new kinds of work are being done. To the knowledge and skills they brought with them, the colonists have added new ones. They have learned to live in this untamed land. No longer are the colonists lonely Europeans far from home in a strange and frightening land. This new country has become their home. You will see how the ways of living changed in the colonies and why they changed. In short, you will see how the colonists learned to be at home in America.

Successful Settlements Spread in America

As shown by the map on page 66, there were two main regions of settlement by 1650. One region extended along the coast from Maine to the mouth of the Hudson River. The other was the land around Chesapeake Bay, in Virginia and Maryland. During the next fifty years many more settlers came to these regions, and the settled areas grew much larger.

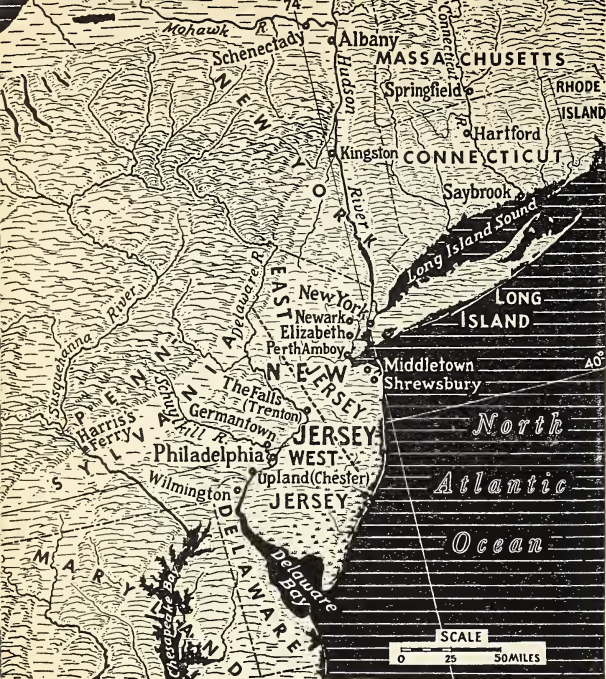
During this same half-century, settlement was begun in two new regions. One region was along the southern coast. The other was along the lower Delaware River and Delaware Bay.

New Jersey becomes a colony

You will remember that in 1664 King Charles II granted New Netherland to his brother, the Duke of York. The name of the settlement was changed

to New York. The colony extended from the valley of the Connecticut River southwest to Delaware Bay. The Duke of York gave the southwestern part to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. It was named New Jersey in honor of Carteret who had been governor of the island of Jersey in the English Channel.

The map on page 68 shows how much land New Jersey included. The Delaware River was its western boundary. The ocean and the Hudson River served as its eastern boundary. Because there was no river to serve as a northern boundary, a line had to be drawn. The line began on the Hudson at 41° north latitude and ran northwest. It reached the Delaware at 41° 40'. The little symbol ' is read "minutes." A minute of latitude is one-sixtieth of a degree.



A map showing the early settlements in New Jersey and Pennsylvania

By 1664 a few settlers had come to New Jersey. One group, made up of Dutch people, had settled on the west bank of the Hudson, opposite Manhattan Island. The other group lived far to the southwest on the Delaware. Some of these people were Dutch, but most of them were Swedes and Finns. The Finns had come from Finland, a country in Europe. They had come with the Swedes to settle in New Sweden.

In 1674 a line was drawn between these two groups of settlements, as shown on the map above. It was agreed that East Jersey was to belong to Carteret and West Jersey to Berkeley.

In East Jersey new settlements were started near the old ones. The settled area became part of the region of many towns around New York. Settlers came from New England. Many people came from Scotland and England. There were also Huguenots from France. Shrews-

bury, Middletown, Elizabeth, Newark, and Perth Amboy were among the early towns.

To understand the history of West Jersey, you need to meet a religious group called Quakers. The beliefs of the Quakers were not like those of other people of the time. They did not always have preachers at their meetings. Often they came and sat in silent worship until someone felt like speaking. Any-one might speak.

The Quakers believed that all people were equal. They refused to call officers of the government by their titles, and they would not take their hats off as a sign of respect. Other people thought the Quakers were not showing respect for the government itself. In a law court they would not say, "I swear to tell the truth," because that meant asking God to be a witness. But they were willing to say, "I affirm that this is true." Today laws permit people to say "I affirm" instead of "I swear," but they did not allow it in the 1600's. Quakers refused to serve in the army. They said the Bible forbids wars.

The religious beliefs of the Quakers led them to break many of the laws of the country. They thought their beliefs were right and the laws were wrong. They could not get the laws changed because not enough people agreed with them. And they thought it was worse to act against their beliefs than to break the laws.

Some of the leaders of the Quakers began to think about a colony of their own, in which they could make the laws. A few had gone to West Jersey. In 1674 Berkeley sold West Jersey to two Quakers. Within a few years there were small Quaker settlements along the eastern bank of the Delaware.

Soon after the two Quakers bought West Jersey, they disagreed over the share each of them should have. They asked a young Quaker named William Penn to settle their difficulties. This young man was to become very important in the history of the country.

William Penn was the son of an English admiral. His father gave William the best education that money could buy. While William was in college, he became a Quaker.

Quakers settle in Pennsylvania

After Penn had helped to settle the difficulties in West Jersey, he became part owner of the colony. Many more Quaker settlers came, but they were not entirely satisfied with West Jersey. Often they looked across the Delaware to the fine land on the other side. This land had never been given to anyone, but how could the Quakers get it? They were not popular in England, so it was not likely that the king would give them a colony.

Before William came to America, his father died. The king had owed Admiral Penn a large sum of money. This debt he now owed to William, Admiral Penn's heir. William asked the king to give him a charter to the land west of the Delaware in payment of the debt. The king agreed. William wanted to call his colony Sylvania because of its beautiful forests. The name comes from the Latin word for forests. The king insisted upon calling it Pennsylvania in honor of Penn's father.

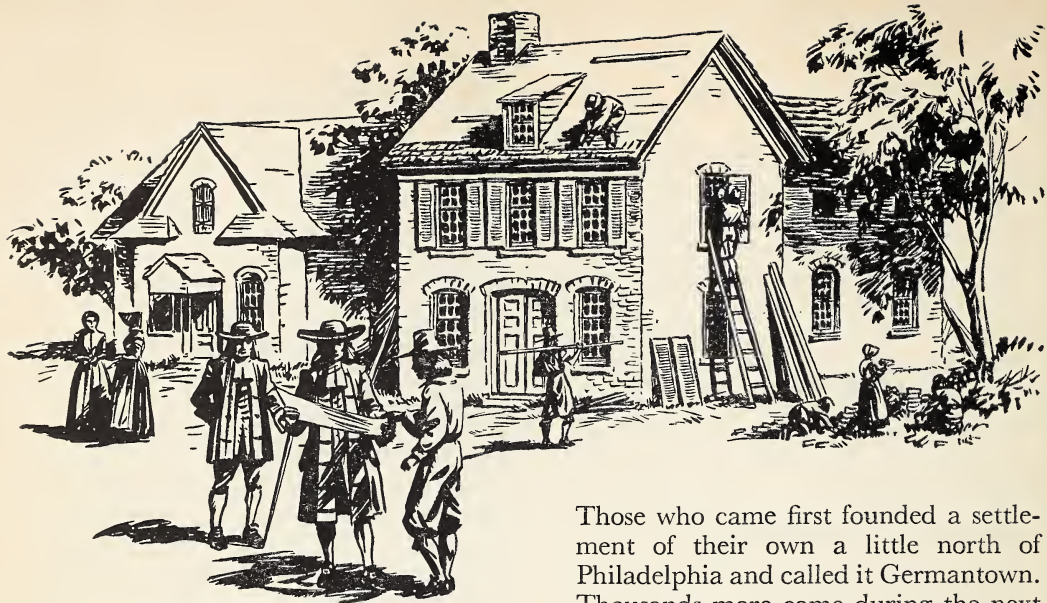
A little later the Duke of York gave Penn a strip of land west of Delaware Bay. The strip was called the Three Lower Counties on the Delaware and was governed as part of Pennsylvania. Later it became Delaware.

William Penn arrived in his new colony in October, 1682. He brought a hundred colonists with him. Penn and his colonists did not dream of the great wealth in natural resources that would some day be found in Pennsylvania. They did know that the soil and climate were good, that there were fine rivers, and that there was plenty of room for all the Quakers who wanted to come. The people of the little Swedish town of Upland made the Quakers welcome. Penn changed the name of the town to Chester and made it his headquarters for the winter.

From the first, Penn made friends with the Indians. He visited them in their villages and joined in their feasts and sports. He bought land from the Indians for his first settlement. Later other pieces of land were bought as the colonists needed them.



In the spring the colonists began building a town, for many new settlers had come. For the beginning of his settlement Penn chose a spot between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. He hired an engineer to lay out a town. It was to be called Philadelphia, which means "brotherly love." Straight streets were to run east and west, crossing others that ran north and south, to form



*Penn showing his friends
the plan for Philadelphia*

squares. In most colonial towns, people had built houses where they wished, and the streets wound back and forth among the houses.

Along the Delaware is a narrow strip of level land. Beyond this, a steep hill rises, facing the river. The people dug caves in this hill for shelters and lived there until they could build houses. Then they built good houses of lumber or brick.

Penn never tried to keep Pennsylvania a colony for Quakers alone. Only a year after Philadelphia was founded a group of Germans arrived. At this time there was no country of Germany. There were many small countries whose people spoke the German language and were called Germans. The rulers of some of these countries were Roman Catholics, the rulers of others, Protestants. Many wars were fought over religious questions, and many Germans who did not agree with their rulers were driven from their homes. Penn invited these people to come to his colony.

Those who came first founded a settlement of their own a little north of Philadelphia and called it Germantown. Thousands more came during the next few years. Most of them took up farming near Philadelphia.

Two centres in the Carolinas

The map on page 66 shows that in 1650 there were still no English settlements south of the Chesapeake Bay region. Between the plantations along the James River and Spanish Florida the wilderness was still unbroken.

In 1653 a group of 100 Virginia colonists asked for land to the south. They wished to go beyond the settled region to the land along the Roanoke River. Roanoke Island, on which Raleigh tried to found his settlements, was near the mouth of this river. You need not remember the date 1653 unless you wish to do so. Remember that it was while New Netherland was still Dutch and long before Penn founded his Quaker colony at Philadelphia.

The Virginia Assembly gave the settlers land north of the Roanoke, near Albemarle Sound. Others soon followed the first group. At first these settlers began to grow tobacco, as they had in Virginia, but they soon found that they could not export much tobacco. Ships

could not sail up their rivers as they did up the deep, wide rivers farther north. Instead of laying out tobacco plantations along the rivers, the settlers scattered through the forests. There, on small farms, they grew food crops and raised farm animals.

Ten years later the king of England gave eight of his friends a charter to found a colony in America. Their colony was to be called Carolina. The land was to begin at $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude and extend southward to the Spanish settlements in Florida. The northern boundary cut off the earlier settlements from Virginia.

In the spring of 1670 the first settlers sent from England by the owners reached the Carolina coast. They had come by way of the West Indies, where a few other settlers had joined them.

On the shores of a small river the colonists chose a place for a settlement, which they called Charles Town.

Nine years later the settlers moved down to the mouth of the river. There they founded a new Charles Town. This was in 1679, three years before Penn arrived in Pennsylvania. You can find Charles Town on the map on page 66.

Now there were two centres of settlement in Carolina. One was just south of Virginia and one was far away around Charles Town. Between them lay more than three hundred miles of forest. They were farther apart than New York and Jamestown. Such a colony could not be governed easily. After a time, therefore, it was divided. The northern settlements were called North Carolina, and those around Charles Town were called South Carolina.

The Early Colonists Learn How to Live in America

It is time now to stop for a look at the colonists living in the New World. What did they learn about America during the first hundred years of settlement? What natural resources had they found, and how did they use them? How were they getting along? How were the colonies governed?

The English colonies in America may be divided into three groups. These were the southern colonies, the New England colonies, and the middle colonies. The sections differed in climate, surface, and natural resources. Each section had its own problems and worked out its own ways of living.

How the colonies were governed

Perhaps you have wondered just what a colony is. A colony is very much like a country, but it is not entirely free to

govern itself. You have seen how the colonies were founded. Sometimes the king gave a charter to a man, or to a group of men, or to a company. In most cases the people to whom the king gave the land were called *proprietors*. The proprietors found people who were willing to go as settlers.

The plan of giving land to companies or proprietors did not work out successfully. The London Company, the Plymouth Company, and most of the proprietors lost large sums of money on their colonies. Only Penn and his family in Pennsylvania and the Calverts in Maryland were fairly successful. In time, the English government took over all the other colonies. Then they were called royal colonies or crown colonies.

Each colony had its own governor and its own assembly. If the colony

was owned by a proprietor, he appointed the governor. In a crown colony, the governor was appointed by the king. Several times the English government tried to put more than one colony under the same governor, but the people were not satisfied. These attempts did not last long. Thus the colonies were not united except that they were neighbors in America and were parts of the British Empire.

The members of the assembly in each colony were elected by the voters of the colony. The assembly made the laws, but the laws had to be approved by the governor.

Colonial governments were patterned on the government of Great Britain. In 1707 Scotland was united with England and Wales to form the kingdom of Great Britain. It was governed by the sovereign and Parliament. Parliament consisted of two Houses. Members of the House of Commons were elected by the voters of England, Wales, and Scotland. The bishops and the hereditary peers made up the House of Lords. To become law, an act had to be passed by both Houses of Parliament and approved by the sovereign.

The British Empire in 1707 consisted of Great Britain, Ireland, the colonies, trading posts in India, and many islands:

On southern farms and plantations

As you know, the first settlement in the southern colonies was at Jamestown, in Virginia. The people began to grow tobacco, and plantations spread along the rivers. As more people settled in Virginia, many farms were laid out on the land between the rivers. Usually these were smaller farms. The farmers brought their tobacco to the nearest plantation wharf. The owner of the

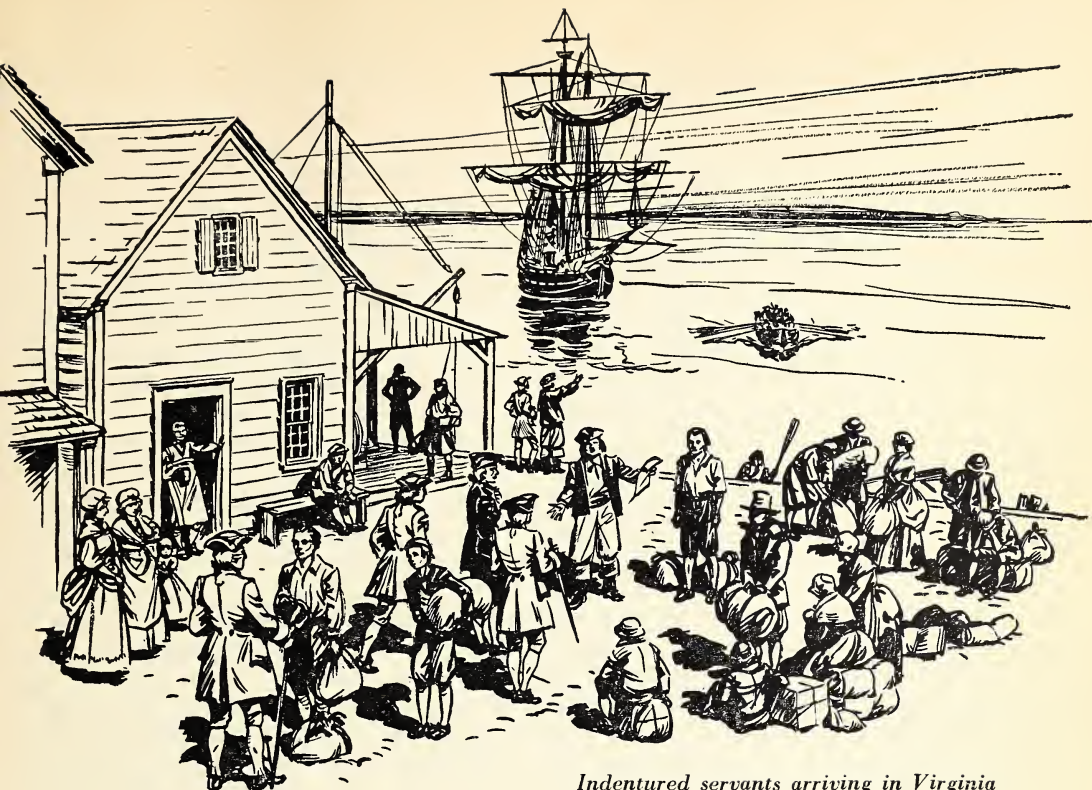
large plantation became a store keeper, too. When he sent for goods from England, he ordered more than he would need for his own plantation. Then his neighbors came to him to buy tools, farm implements, cloth, and other articles. They paid for them with the tobacco they brought.

The great problem of the Virginia plantations was how to get people to do the work. Raising tobacco takes many workers. The ground must be prepared and planted. Then the soil must be hoed many times to keep it soft and to kill the weeds. When it is time to harvest the crop, the leaves must be picked and cured. Curing tobacco means hanging the leaves where they will get soft, brown, and partly dry.

Even on a fairly small farm, one family could not do all this work. The planter could not hire workers, for every settler had his own farm. You read that twenty Negro slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619. For the next sixty years there were only a few slaves in Virginia.

For a long time the colonies had more white servants than slaves. Many poor people in Europe wanted to come to America but did not have enough money. Ship captains would bring such people. When they reached America, their fare would be paid by the planters who needed workers.

A person whose way had been paid signed a paper called an *indenture*. He agreed that he would work for the planter, usually for five years, to pay back the fare. Because the paper he signed was an indenture, he was called an indentured servant. The planter promised that the servant should have food and clothing. At the end of the time agreed upon, he was to have new



Indentured servants arriving in Virginia

clothes, a little money, and often a small farm. Many people who came to the New World as indentured servants became prosperous colonists later. In early Virginia there were many more indentured servants than slaves.

The planted fields of early Virginia were carefully cultivated, but they were surrounded by ragged bushes and fields covered with many young trees. These were the worn-out tobacco fields. Tobacco is very hard on the soil, and the colonial planters did nothing to keep the land fertile. After a few years they said a field was worn out. It would no longer produce good crops.

The servants were kept busy clearing the land for new fields whenever they did not have to work on the crops. The new fields were used until they, too, had been worn out.

It seemed to the planters that there would always be plenty of land in this great new country. They could always clear new fields and leave the old fields to grow up in brush and trees. Even if they had understood how wastefully they were using the land, they could not have done much about it. In those days no one knew much about how to keep land fertile.

It is hard to realize how scattered the population was. Today the largest city, New York, has twenty times as many people as there were in all the colonies in 1700. On the map on page 51 you saw how the rivers divide the land into long peninsulas. Every few miles along the rivers there was a plantation house. Sometimes, however, there were long stretches of swampy land where no one wanted to live. Back of

the river plantations were a few small farms cut out of the forests.

Along the centre of nearly every peninsula lay land that was not in use. The great forest trees stood untouched. Bears, deer, wildcats, and other animals made their home in the forests. Cattle, sheep, and pigs wandered in these forests, too. The plantations had no fenced pasture land. Farm animals were turned loose to find food for themselves. Cattle and sheep ate grass that grew in the more open parts of the forests. Pigs ate nuts, fruit, roots, and the leaves of plants.

Virginia colonists did little manufacturing. A few articles for home use were made on the farms and plantations. For example, when a brick house was to be built, the bricks were usually made near by. Tools were made on some of the plantations. Sometimes flax and wool fibres were spun on spinning wheels and were then woven into cloth. More of this kind of work was done later, however.



On page 61 you read how colonists came to Maryland in 1634. They had no serious trouble in making a living. They had the example of Virginia to follow, and so they did not make some of the mistakes made by the Virginia colonists at first.

Tobacco became the leading crop. Plantations were laid out along the inlets of Chesapeake Bay. As in Virginia,

slaves and white servants worked on the plantations. There were also small farms, on which the farmer's family did all the work. Towns were scarce, just as they were in Virginia. For a long time there were only Saint Mary's and Providence, which you can find on the map on page 51. Later the name of Providence was changed to Annapolis, and it became the capital.

Other towns were founded later. Baltimore, near the northern end of the bay, became an important city of later colonial times. It was not founded until 1729, however.

On page 70 you read how people from Virginia settled the region near Albemarle Sound which later became part of North Carolina. You can see from the map on page 75 that this region differs in one way from Virginia. Its rivers do not flow into Chesapeake Bay. This may not seem a very big difference, but it was important to the settlers.

The rivers that flow into Albemarle Sound and Pamlico Sound cannot be used by ships. Therefore the settlers of North Carolina could not send their products directly by ship from their own river banks. As a result, they could not do the same kind of farming or live in the same way as did the people of the Virginia settlements.

Although the settlers grew a little tobacco, they did not depend upon it for a living. They raised crops and animals for their own food. When they had more than they needed, they sold what they did not need. They also sold naval stores. These are tar, pitch, resin, and turpentine, taken from pine trees. They are called naval stores because they are used on ships. Some products were sent over land or in boats to Virginia. Small ships from

New England also came to get the products. The trade of the region was always small, however.

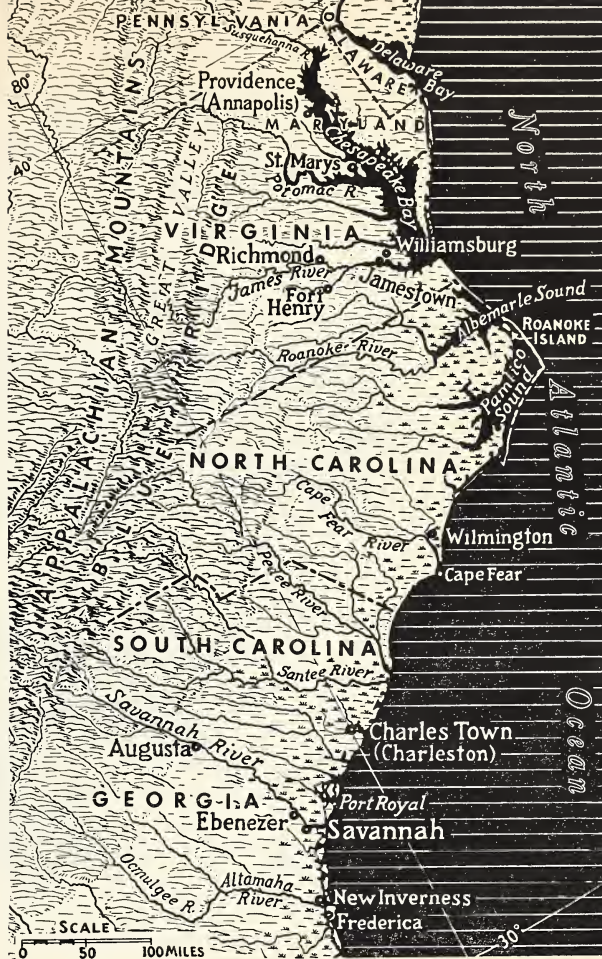
Settlers came a little later to the region near the mouth of the Cape Fear River. Their products were much the same as those of the region near Albemarle Sound. They had a better chance to export them, however, for the mouth of the Cape Fear River forms a good harbor. Wilmington was founded at the mouth of this river in 1730.

In time North Carolina had large plantations with slaves to do the work. Most of its people lived on small farms, however. They continued to grow a variety of products. No one product became especially important, as tobacco was in Virginia.

The story of South Carolina is very different. On page 71 you read how the settlement at Charles Town was started. As in so many colonies, the plans of the founders did not work out quite as they expected. The proprietors must have expected a warmer climate than South Carolina really has.

The proprietors thought the colonists would be able to grow oranges, olives, sugar cane, and other crops raised in the West Indies. For a time some of these products were grown successfully. Then an especially cold winter killed most of the trees. Sugar cane could not be raised because the growing season was not long enough.

The map on this page shows you that there was much low, swampy land along the rivers and the near-by coast. There could be no tobacco plantations laid out along the rivers and the coast, as in Virginia and Maryland. Few crops will grow on low, swampy land, and so the settlers lived a little way back from the shores. They grew crops for food, but



A map showing where later settlements in the South were located

at first they had no important farm product to sell.

The colony had a good harbor at Charles Town. As you see from the map above, the name was later changed to Charleston. The first important trade of Charleston was not in farm products at all. During the early days the principal export was deerskins. Traders with long lines of pack horses followed the Indian trails far inland from the ocean. They travelled over the land De Soto had once explored, and they found wealth where De Soto had seen



The wharf at Charleston

nothing of value. In De Soto's time people had not yet learned that skins of deer, beavers, and other wild animals might be worth more than gold.

The planters of South Carolina finally found a farm crop that exactly suited them. This crop was rice. There is a story about how the growing of rice began here. A ship was wrecked on the coast near Charleston. The people of Charleston helped the captain and crew. Before he left, the captain gave his new friends a bag of rice for seed. Rice had been tried before in both

Virginia and South Carolina, but it had not been a successful crop. The captain's rice proved to be a better variety for this region.

The first of this rice was grown in 1696. Within a few years it became the leading crop of the colony. The swamps along the rivers had been waste land before. Now they were considered the best farm land. As you probably know, rice plants must be flooded during the earlier weeks of their growth, and the swampy lowlands could very easily be flooded.

Most of the rice planters of South Carolina did not live the year round



on their plantations, as the tobacco planters of Virginia and Maryland did. Summers are hotter and longer in South Carolina. Charleston, with its ocean breezes, was a much pleasanter place in summer than the rice plantations. Most planters had homes in Charleston and spent part of the year there.

Charleston became a pleasant little city of fine homes, shady streets, and many flowers. Down by the wharves were busy scenes of loading and unloading. Fine furniture, boxes of dishes, bales of cloth, casks of wine were taken off the boats. Then bundles of deer-skins and barrels of rice were stowed away on board. Lumber and naval stores were often loaded, too.

Thus life went on in South Carolina for about fifty years after the planters began growing rice. Then another new crop was found. This was indigo, a plant from which a blue dye is made. Within a few years indigo was the second most important crop of the

colony. It was raised on the higher land a little way back from the rivers, where rice would not grow.

The map on page 66 shows that in 1700 there were still few settlers in South Carolina except in the region around Charleston. Later there were settlers along other river valleys, as far south as Port Royal, but none south of Port Royal. Spain still claimed that this was part of Florida.

Now our story takes us to England, to a young man named James Oglethorpe. He thought that good use could be made of this unsettled land next to Spanish Florida. Oglethorpe had become interested in helping people who were in prison in England. At this time people were put in prison if they owed debts which they did not pay when the money was due. Oglethorpe knew that many of these people were in debt because of accident or misfortune. They were honest people who would have paid their debts if they could.

Oglethorpe found a number of wealthy men who were also interested in helping and would give large sums of money to start a colony. They asked the government for the unsettled land in southern South Carolina. They were given the land. Parliament voted money to help start the colony, called Georgia in honor of King George II.

Oglethorpe visited a great many people who wished to go to the new colony. He chose the ones he thought would make the best colonists. Some of them were in prison for debts. Their debts were paid from the money that had been collected. Others were poor people who wished to go to America but could not afford to pay their own way. A great many others could afford to pay their way and buy land. They wished to go to Georgia because they liked the plans for the new colony.

In 1733 Oglethorpe landed in America with the first shipload of settlers. A few miles up the Savannah River they founded the town of Savannah. Within a few years several thousand people had come to Georgia, and new settlements were started. Frederica was founded by settlers brought from England by Oglethorpe in 1736. Ebenezer was a settlement of Germans. New Inverness was started by settlers from Scotland. Far up the Savannah River, Augusta had its beginning as a fur-trading post.

Georgia was the last new colony to be founded. The settlers did not have to find out everything for themselves, as the early colonists had done. From the first they had various ways of making a living. They traded with the Indians for skins, as the people of Carolina did. They sold lumber and naval stores from the forests. On the lowlands along the

rivers they grew rice. After indigo was grown in South Carolina, they, too, began to raise it. They also grew tobacco and many food crops. Soon they were exporting large quantities of corn and meat, as well as rice and indigo.

Life in the New England colonies

For a long time most of the people of New England were farmers. Even when they did other work, they farmed enough land to supply most of their own food. There was no great farm crop, however, such as rice or tobacco in the southern colonies.

New England as a whole has never been an especially good place to farm. It has cold winters and a short growing season, compared with regions farther south. The soil is thin and not very fertile. Fields are full of stones, and much of the land is hilly. Only two regions in New England became known for their good farming land. These two regions were the Connecticut Valley and the lowlands around Narragansett Bay.

Most New England farms were small. A family could not care for much land when there was so much hard work to be done. There was no real reason why New England farmers should have wanted larger farms or greater crops. They could raise enough food for themselves, and that was all that was necessary. New England had other natural resources that were better than the soil. There were other kinds of work that paid far better than farming.

You have caught glimpses already of fur trading and fishing in the early days of New England. From the beginning the settlers counted on fish, clams, and lobsters as part of their food supply. They also traded with

the Indians for beaver skins, which they sent to England.

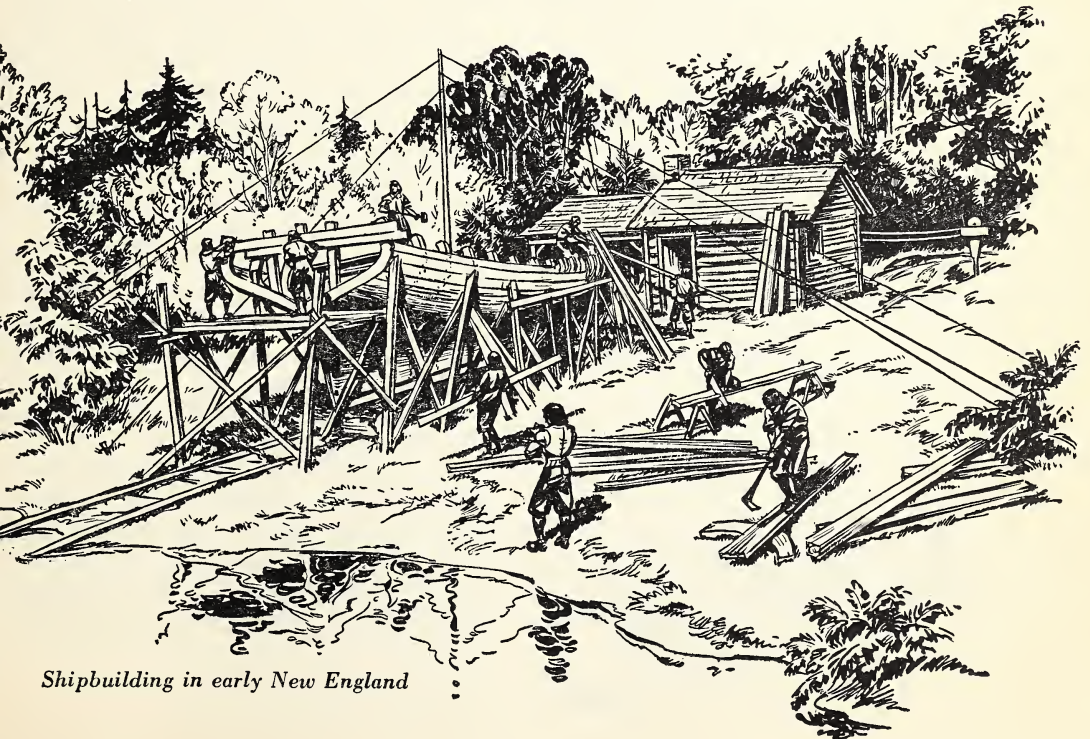
New England settlers expected to send forest products to England, as the southern colonists did. New England pines made excellent lumber, and many ships loaded with lumber sailed from New England ports. For ship masts, no trees in the world could equal the white pines of New England. The very finest of these pines went to England to become masts for the ships of the English navy.

From the beginning the New England settlers needed boats. They needed small boats for fishing and for trading along the coast, and larger ships to cross the ocean. They had the necessary materials for building them. It was natural that they should start building their own ships. The first real ship was the *Blessing of the Bay*, built at Medford, just north of Boston,

in 1631. It started off at once on a trading trip to New Amsterdam.

Fishing, trading, and shipbuilding went together in New England. They grew up because New England people were trying to make a living by using their natural resources.

Great shipyards were not needed for building the small wooden ships of those days. Ships could be built on the shore of any little bay or inlet or river mouth. Often a number of men would work together to build a ship. They started by chopping down trees and cutting them into planks and boards of the right shape. Then they built their ship on the shore of a little harbor. From the pine trees they got naval stores—tar and pitch to fill the spaces between the planks, so that the ship would not leak. Probably one of the men was a carpenter who knew how a ship should be built. Another was a



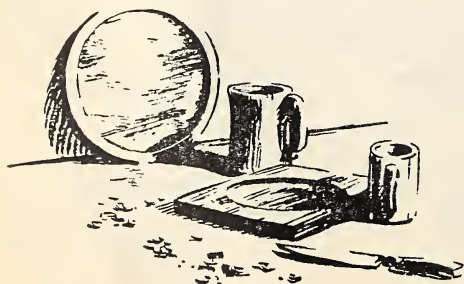
Shipbuilding in early New England

skilled sailmaker. Probably a third was a blacksmith who could make the anchor and other metal fittings for the ship. Even nails were hammered from hot iron by blacksmiths. Another man might be a cooper who made the barrels needed on the ship.

In building a ship, each man used his special skill and paid his share of the cost. When the ship was finished, it belonged to all of them. Perhaps they all got in and sailed away on a fishing or trading trip. When the trip was over, they shared the money they had made. Probably all of them were farmers part of the year.

Of course, this was not the only way ships were made. There were regular shipyards where ships were built and sold. Many were sent to England and sold there. Sometimes a merchant hired men to build a ship and then hired a crew to sail it.

From the first the New England settlers made many things for themselves. The furs, fish, and lumber they sent to England in the early days were not enough to pay for everything they needed. They must either make things for themselves or do without. As a result, almost every man and boy in New England became a whittler. With sharp knives they whittled out wooden dishes and spoons and hundreds of other articles that are now made in factories. Furniture, tools, and farm implements were also made at home.



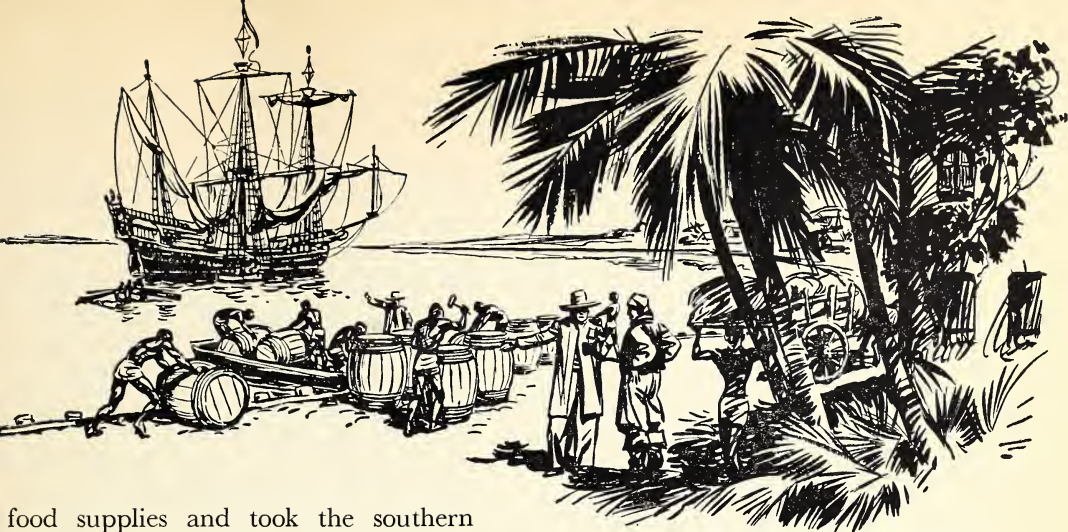
The first factories in New England were sawmills. A sawmill run by water power was built in southern Maine in 1631. Within a few years there were many sawmills along the streams of Maine. These sawmills were simple. A wooden wheel was turned by the water. The turning wheel moved a long saw blade up and down.

A little later nearly every town had a small sawmill and also a gristmill, for New England has many swift streams to furnish power. Farmers brought their corn and other grain to the gristmill to be ground into meal and flour. The grinding was done between two large circular pieces of stone, called millstones. The upper stone was turned round and round by the water wheel.

Shipbuilding led to many industries. Flax was grown, and the fibres were woven into heavy canvas for sails. Ropes were made from hemp and flax fibres. Coopers made barrels and casks. Blacksmiths made anchors, nails, and chains. New England pines were not as good as southern pines for making naval stores. Enough were produced, however, for New England ships.

At first iron was imported from England in bars. Later, small deposits were mined in New England. Furnaces were set up and charcoal was prepared as fuel for smelting the iron. Iron furnaces were set up at a number of places in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. It is believed that the first steel made in the colonies was manufactured in Connecticut.

To people of the other colonies New Englanders were best known as traders. They did not always carry New England goods. Their smaller ships sailed into the shallow inlets of the Carolina coast. They brought meat and other



New England ship at Barbados

food supplies and took the southern crops to the northern colonies or to England. Larger ships sailed to Africa and brought back slaves for the southern planters.

New England ships carried on a heavy trade with the West Indies. Britain now held Jamaica, Barbados, and several smaller islands. The climate in these islands is tropical. The colonists there grew sugar cane, spices, tropical fruits, and indigo and other plants that produced dyes. Sugar cane was most important. The English colonists grew their crops on large plantations. The plantation workers were Negro slaves. Almost nothing was grown except the crops for export, and nearly all the food was imported.

The principal exports from New England to the West Indies were lumber and fish. In return the ships brought back sugar, molasses, and spices. Not all of these products were used in New England. Many were shipped away again to England or to the other colonies.

Living in the middle colonies

In the early colonial days, most of the people in New England and in the southern colonies were English. In the middle colonies, the first people were the Dutch settlers in New Netherland,

which became New York. Next came the Swedes and Finns in Delaware. Many French Huguenots came to New Jersey. Many Germans came to Pennsylvania later. Many Welsh people came, too. They came from Wales, which is west of England. Wales is a part of the kingdom of Great Britain. A few years later Scottish-Irish settlers began moving to Pennsylvania. They came from the north of Ireland, but their ancestors had moved to Ireland from Scotland.

Most of these people who were not English settled their own communities. The Scottish-Irish spoke the English language, but all the others had languages of their own. All of them had their own ways of living and working.

Nations of people, alike in descent, language, or history, usually occupy their own lands, and have their own governments. Such groups are called *nationalities*. Different peoples have different ways of working, often their own styles in clothing and houses, their own ideas about how people should behave, and even their own ways of thinking about the world.

Most of the early German settlers in Pennsylvania had come for religious freedom. They were very serious, hard-working people. The land around Philadelphia was fine farming country, with a climate that was just right for a great many crops. The settlers were proud of their farms and took good care of them. In Pennsylvania they became prosperous and successful. Soon these Pennsylvania Germans had the finest farms in all the colonies.

The middle colonies became known as a food-producing region. There was no one outstanding crop. Sometimes visitors from New England were shocked at the great variety of fine food eaten here at one meal. In addition to having all they needed for themselves, the colonists exported large quantities of food products. They were sent to the other colonies, to England, and especially to the West Indies.

The middle colonies grew great quantities of wheat and also rye, oats, and barley. They exported grain, flour, and bread. They sent out so much of

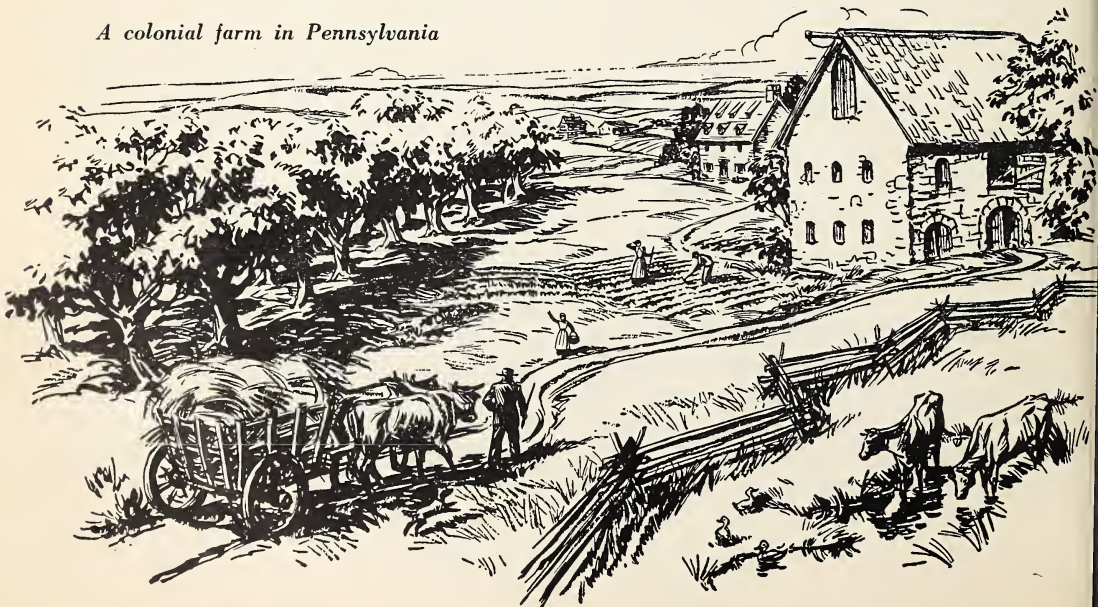
these products that the people in other sections often called the middle colonies the "bread colonies."

The people of the middle colonies also grew many fruits and vegetables, including potatoes. They were the only ones in earlier colonial times to grow many potatoes. These were an Indian vegetable, but the Indians of North America did not grow them. The Spaniards found them growing in the Andes Mountains in South America. From there they were taken to other parts of the Spanish empire. Raleigh took them to his estates in Ireland, probably from the West Indies. Then the colonists brought them back to America.

Like New England and the southern colonies, the middle colonies had fine forests. Naval stores, potash, and lumber were exported. Philadelphia and New York became shipbuilding centres.

Like New England, too, the middle colonies soon had many gristmills. Some of these near Philadelphia and New York were quite large. They had rows of millstones, all run by one

A colonial farm in Pennsylvania



water wheel. These mills made flour for export. Throughout this section there were many small mills. A great many barrels were made near the two seaports. They were needed for packing the food products for export.

Iron working started in the middle colonies as it did in New England. Small deposits of ore were found in a number of places. Small furnaces were set up and charcoal was used to smelt the ore. In later colonial times, Pennsylvania produced more iron than any other colony.

The pottery industry in New Jersey was started in 1684. This was the first manufacture of dishes in the colonies, but other clay products were made in many places. Brick and tile had been made almost from the time of the first settlements. In 1690 a paper mill was built near Philadelphia. This was the first one in the colonies. In 1693 a printing plant was started in New York. Glass was made in many places and became especially important in the middle colonies. All industries were very small at first.

Men from Four Countries Fill In the Map of North America

You have been reading about Britain's Atlantic colonies. They were not, as you know, the only colonies in North America. The map on the next page shows the large area which the French had explored and occupied. To understand the conflict which developed we need to review some parts of the well-known story of New France.

The first French settlements

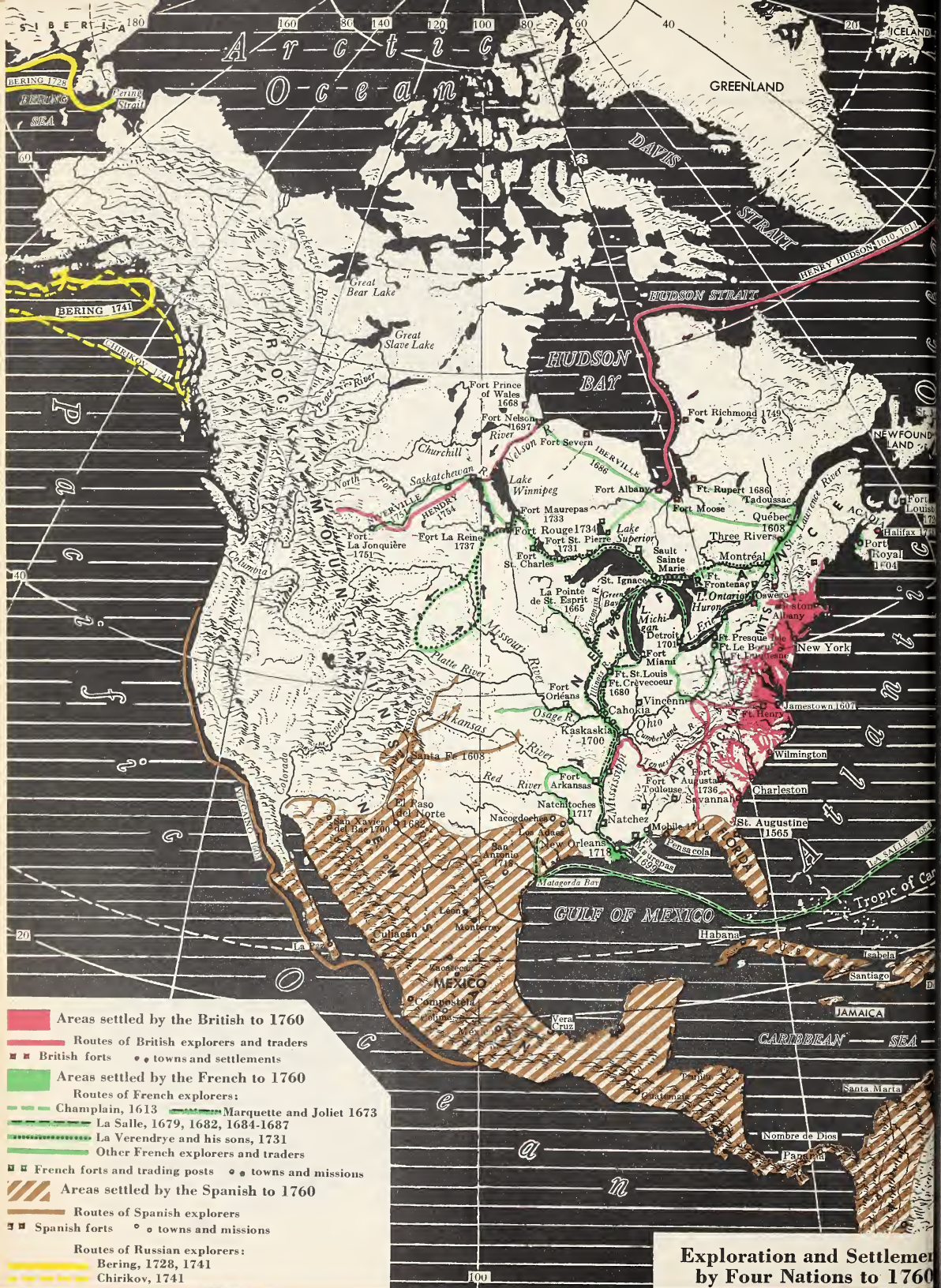
Like the English, the French made a number of attempts to start settlements before they were successful. One was made in 1604 at Port Royal in Acadia. It lasted for three years but was finally given up. Later it was resettled.

One of the leaders in the settlement at Port Royal was Samuel de Champlain. He still believed that a prosperous French settlement could be started in America. In 1608 Champlain brought a new group of settlers to the St. Lawrence. He chose the place where Cartier's ships had spent the winter of 1535-1536. There, at the foot of a high, rocky cliff, Champlain's settlers laid out their little settlement

and built the Habitation, which they called Quebec.

The map shows that there was a great difference between the British and the French colonies. Along the eastern coast is a large area that is shown to be almost solid settlement. Now look at the green, which shows the French colonies. Here you see long, long lines that stand for the routes of explorers. Scattered over thousands of square miles you see forts and trading posts. Only in a few spots are there areas of green to show that the land was really settled.

After Cartier, Champlain was the first of the great French explorers. On his first trip, in 1609, he discovered the large lake which we call Lake Champlain. The map shows where he travelled. On his journey of 1613 his party travelled up the Ottawa River in canoes. Then his Indian guides carried the canoes to a small river flowing into Georgian Bay. The Indians knew many places where their light canoes could be carried from one river to another. Frenchmen called these places portages.



Canoes were also portaged around falls and rapids in the rivers.

Champlain made friends with Indians who lived near Lake Huron and along the Ottawa River. They were enemies of the Iroquois, who lived south of the St. Lawrence. Twice Champlain and a few other Frenchmen went with war parties of their Indian friends to attack the Iroquois. In both attacks the guns of the Frenchmen brought defeat to the Iroquois.

For twenty years Quebec grew very slowly. Then in the year 1627 a company was formed in France. It was called the Company of New France. The company was to have control of the fur trade. This meant that traders could come only with permission of the company, and the company would have a share in the profit on every skin sold. In return, the company was to send at least two hundred colonists a year to New France.

By 1634 there were still only two small settled areas, one in Quebec and one at Port Royal in Acadia. Then Champlain built a trading post at Three Rivers. Eight years later Montreal was founded. For more than twenty-five years settlement spread slowly along the river. There was still very little farming. Most of the people were either traders or missionaries.

Frenchmen explore the Great Lakes

In the meantime the Frenchmen were travelling far across the country. Some dates are given so that you can compare events in the French and the British colonies. Many of these dates are worth remembering.

Some of the Frenchmen who travelled through the wilderness were missionaries. The map shows you the missions

they founded, where they could teach the Indians about Christianity. Other Frenchmen were called *voyageurs*. This French word simply means "travellers." We should call these travellers explorers. They travelled thousands of miles by canoe, exploring the land and building trading posts.

One of the first western explorers was Jean Nicolet. When he started, Quebec was still the only settlement on the St. Lawrence. He travelled from Quebec to Lake Huron by Champlain's route.

From the Indians near Lake Huron, Nicolet heard of a great body of water farther west and of people on the western shore. Nicolet thought it might be the western ocean. The Indians knew nothing of the size of the real ocean. To them the water they told about was very wide indeed.

The Indians agreed to take Nicolet to see the people west of the great water. From what the Indians told him, Nicolet expected to find Chinese there. Perhaps he should have known better. He might have known that even a large Indian canoe could not be paddled to China. He did not know this, however, and he went prepared to find China and to give the people of China a proper greeting.

The Indians paddled northward on Lake Huron and then turned to the west through a beautiful strait. Surely this was a passage to China at last! Beyond the strait the water stretched away endlessly. The long canoe followed the northern shore. At last the travellers entered a deep bay. At the end of the bay, the Indians said, Nicolet would find the people he sought.

From the baggage in the bottom of the canoe Nicolet took the beautiful embroidered robe he had brought with

him. He dressed carefully. It was a little strange that there were no cities or farms or fishermen along the shore, no ships on the blue water. There was only the dark-green forest down to the water's edge.

Now, the Indians said, the town was just ahead. Nicolet saw no great city, but there were people on the shore. He stood up in the canoe, dressed in his handsome robe. The canoes swept up to the beach and Nicolet stepped ashore. Then he knew he was mistaken. These people were Indians, not Chinese. Nicolet had not found China, but he had found a rich new territory for the fur traders. So far as we know, he was the first European to see Lake Michigan. Ten years later two young Frenchmen, whose names were Radisson and Groseilliers, explored the shores of Lake Superior. You will meet these two men later in another place.

One of the most honored men of New France was Jacques Marquette. Because he was a priest and a missionary, he is usually called Father Marquette. After he came to New France, he studied for a time with an experienced missionary and learned several Indian languages. Then in 1668 he started for the farthest outpost of New France. This was the mission of La Pointe de Saint Esprit, near the western end of Lake Superior.

Marquette stopped on the shores of the river flowing down from Lake Superior. Here was a long stretch of rapids where all the overflow of Lake Superior came roaring down over the rocks. Crowds of Indians gathered to spear whitefish. Father Marquette thought this would be a good place for a mission, and here he spent the winter of 1668-1669 teaching the Indians.

During the next summer he went on to western Lake Superior. Other priests came to the mission beside the rapids, called Sault Ste Marie.

When Father Marquette arrived at the Lake Superior mission, the missionary who had founded it left him in charge. He himself travelled southward and founded a mission on Green Bay, where Nicolet had expected to find China. Two years later Marquette founded a mission at Saint Ignace. You can find it on the map on page 84.

In 1671 a very important ceremony took place at Sault Ste Marie. The governor of New France sent an officer there, with soldiers and priests. From miles around, the French traders had called together a great crowd of Indians. Then the Frenchmen solemnly claimed all the land from sea to sea for France. A priest who could speak the languages of the Indians told them they must obey the king of France, who was a very powerful ruler.

Voyageurs and coureurs de bois

The French posts marked on your map were little forts. They were made up of log buildings inside a log stockade. French travellers and traders could stop there for a rest. They could go to the posts for safety if the Indians were unfriendly. If they were ill or had lost their supplies, they could get help. Most important, the posts were gathering places for the Indians who had furs to sell.

The men who brought the Indians to the posts were called *coureurs de bois*. In English this name means "runners of the woods." The *coureurs de bois* travelled with the Indians and encouraged them to hunt and trap. In the spring they brought the Indians with

their furs to the nearest post. There they met other Indians with furs.

In early spring the Indian canoes gathered at the larger posts, such as the one on Green Bay. The canoes were made of birch bark. A canoe might be thirty feet long and five feet wide. It had to be used very carefully, for the bark was no thicker than cardboard. It also upset very easily. With skillful use, such a canoe could carry six or more men and as much as two or three tons of furs. At a portage the canoe was unloaded. When it was empty, it was so light that two men sometimes carried it on their shoulders from one lake or stream to another.

Just how was the fur trade carried on? This is what happened year after year at Green Bay. On a bright spring morning several hundred canoes line up along the shore at Green Bay. The sun sparkles across the blue water, with little silver lights on the wave tips. A group of *coureurs de bois* stand talking with a priest from the mission. Indians are splashing back and forth between the canoes and the shore. They are loading the last bundles of fur.

There is a shout. The first canoe is ready. Six Indians hold the canoe steady while a *coureur de bois* climbs in. Then the Indians step carefully aboard. Paddles flash in the sunlight. The canoe moves away toward the north.

One after another the canoes leave the shore, until a long line stretches away down the bay. The fur brigade is off for Montreal. Everything is very orderly and everything is

bright and full of color—the blue water, the soft greens and reds of the spring forest, the feathers of the Indians, the caps and sashes of the *coureurs de bois*, the painted canoes. The canoes stay close to shore. At night the travellers land. Fires twinkle along the beach. The smell of wood smoke and broiling fish floats over the water, mingled with the fragrance of pine trees.

At last the fur brigade comes to the strait that Nicolet thought might lead to China. There, at the post of Michilimackinac, old friends meet who have not seen one another for a year. There is news from all the area around the Great Lakes. There is news from the settlements on the St. Lawrence. Perhaps there is even news from France.

Soon only a few soldiers are left at Michilimackinac, and the priests live quietly again at the Saint Ignace mission across the strait. The fur brigade

A portage between waterways



is on its way again. Day after day the paddles dip and flash. Night after night the campfires twinkle on shore. At last Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario are left behind. The fur brigade is in the St. Lawrence, nearing Montreal.

When the canoes reach Montreal, everything is ready for the trading. Ships from France are anchored in the river. They have brought trade goods and will go back loaded with furs. All along the shore the traders of Montreal have spread out their goods. No money will be used in this trading. The Indians will trade the skins for guns and knives, for needles and small metal looking glasses, for kettles and blankets, for cloth and ornaments and hatchets.

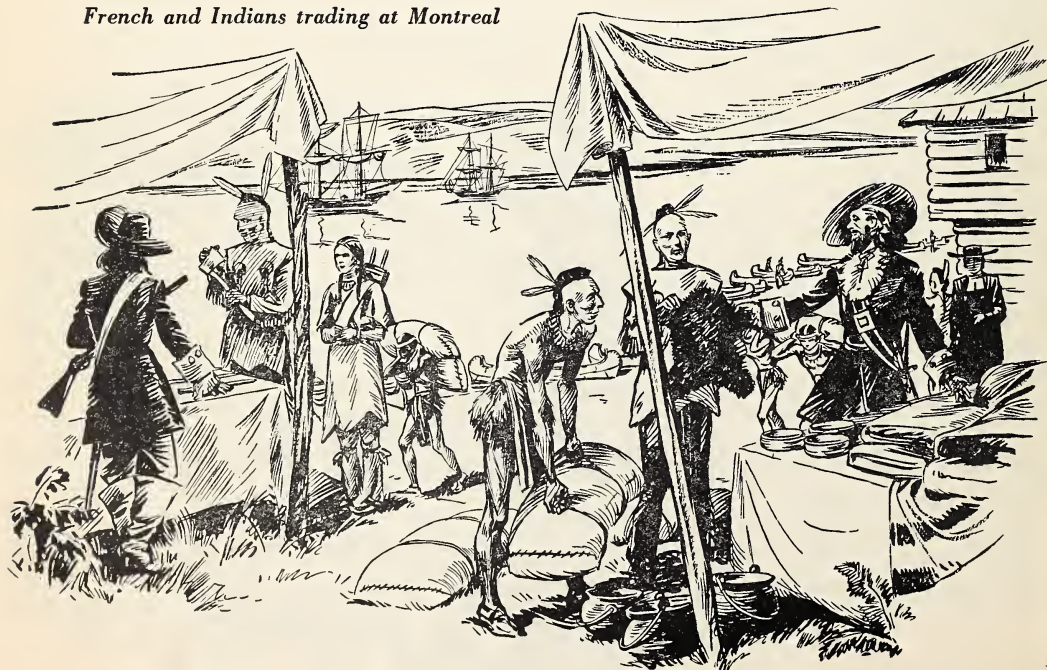
When the last beaver skin has been traded, the Indians and the *coureurs de bois* start back. The middle of summer is past. The Indians from Green Bay and Lake Superior will be weeks on

the way. When they reach home, it will be almost time to start the winter hunting. Winter is the time for hunting fur-bearing animals because their fur is thicker in cold weather.

The Mississippi Valley becomes French

In the year 1673 a visitor arrived at Saint Ignace. His name was Louis Joliet. He had been sent from Quebec to explore the country west and south of the Great Lakes, and he had been told to take Father Marquette with him. The map shows the route they followed. They travelled to Green Bay and then up the Fox River. From the Fox River they carried their canoes to the Wisconsin and floated down the Wisconsin to the Mississippi. So far as we know, no European had seen the Mississippi since De Soto's men left it more than a hundred years before.

French and Indians trading at Montreal





Marquette and Joliet on the Mississippi

Marquette and Joliet traveled south as far as the mouth of the Arkansas River. Then they turned back. This time, as the map shows, they followed a different route. Their trip opened up a great new area to the fur trade.

Father Marquette determined to found a mission for the Indians on the Illinois River. In the fall of 1674 he was back at the southwestern corner of Lake Michigan. He became ill and spent the winter there in a little hut built by his companions. In the spring he was better and went on to the Illinois. There he became ill again. His companions hurried northward with him toward Saint Ignace. He died on the way, on the lonely, forested eastern shore of Lake Michigan.

The map on page 84 shows the route of another French explorer on the Mississippi. This was Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle. He is commonly called La Salle, but that was part of a title, not really his name. You know something about English titles. Many more people had titles in France than in England. Often people who had an estate the size of a large farm were permitted to use the name of the estate as a title. Robert Cavalier got his title of Sieur de La Salle from an estate he inherited in France.

La Salle was twenty-three years old when he arrived at Montreal in 1666. From the first he dreamed of finding a river leading to the western ocean. On his first journey, made in 1669, he may have discovered the Ohio River. No one now is sure whether he reached it or not. During the next ten years he was a fur trader and learned to travel

in the wilderness. Then he started off on the trip that made him famous. You can trace his journey on the map on page 84. On the Niagara River, above the Falls, he had a sailing ship built. He called it the *Griffin*. This was the first ship on the Great Lakes.

It was early spring when La Salle left Fort Frontenac in the *Griffin*. At Michilimackinac many Indians came to look at the *Griffin*. They had never before seen anything like this ship with its great white sails. La Salle had brought goods to trade, and exchanged them for many fine furs. Then he sailed on to Green Bay. There again he traded, until he had a valuable load for his ship. La Salle sent the *Griffin* home without him. It was never seen again. No one knows what happened to La Salle's ship and his fortune in fine furs.

After the *Griffin* had sailed, La Salle started south on Lake Michigan with about forty men. One of them was Henri de Tonty, whom the Indians called "Tonty of the Iron Hand." He had been a soldier in Europe and had lost a hand in battle. He wore an iron hand to take its place.

La Salle had many troubles, but he did not give up. Twice he left his men and went all the way back to New



La Salle claims the Mississippi for France

France to get more supplies. At last, in 1682, he reached the mouth of the Mississippi. There he claimed the whole valley of the great river for his country. Then he travelled back to the St. Lawrence and sailed for France.

La Salle wished to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. The next year he sailed from France with settlers for his new colony. His ships missed the mouth of the Mississippi, however, and landed on the coast several hundred miles too far west. The settlers were lost. They did not know where, in all this great wilderness of America, they might find other Europeans. It seemed to them that La Salle was to blame for all their hardships.

La Salle knew that somewhere far to the north his friend Tonty was still trading with the Indians. Somewhere beyond were the Great Lakes, with trading posts and missions. Finally he started northward by land with

twenty men. When they had been on the way only a few days, La Salle was murdered by his own men.

While La Salle was lost on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, Tonty was building forts on the northern tributaries of the Mississippi. The French called this more northern region the Illinois country, from the Illinois Indians who lived there. Later, settlers came and there were French farmers as well as fur traders in the Illinois country.

The first settlement near the mouth of the Mississippi was made in 1699. It was not on the river, but east of it,

where Fort Maurepas is marked on your map. In 1702 the settlement was moved to Mobile Bay.

Near the mouth of the Mississippi the land is low and swampy. So the first settlement was made far up the river at Natchez. Then New Orleans was founded in 1718. It soon became the most important town in Louisiana, but in its early years someone described it as a few miserable hovels in a swamp filled with snakes and alligators.

Then a *levee* was built, a bank of earth to keep out the floods. The land was drained, and better houses were built. Farmers came to the country around New Orleans. They began to grow rice, sugar cane, indigo, cotton, and other crops that need a warm climate. Ships sailed up the river with goods from France. New Orleans became a gay little city and was made the capital of Louisiana. It was headquarters for trade with the Indians and with the Spaniards in Mexico and

Florida. Furs and farm products from the Illinois country came down the river to New Orleans.

The French settlers in the Illinois country raised wheat and other grains. They also grew vegetables and fruit. In addition to farm products, they sent to New Orleans the meat and skins of bears and deer.

Farms and farmers of New France

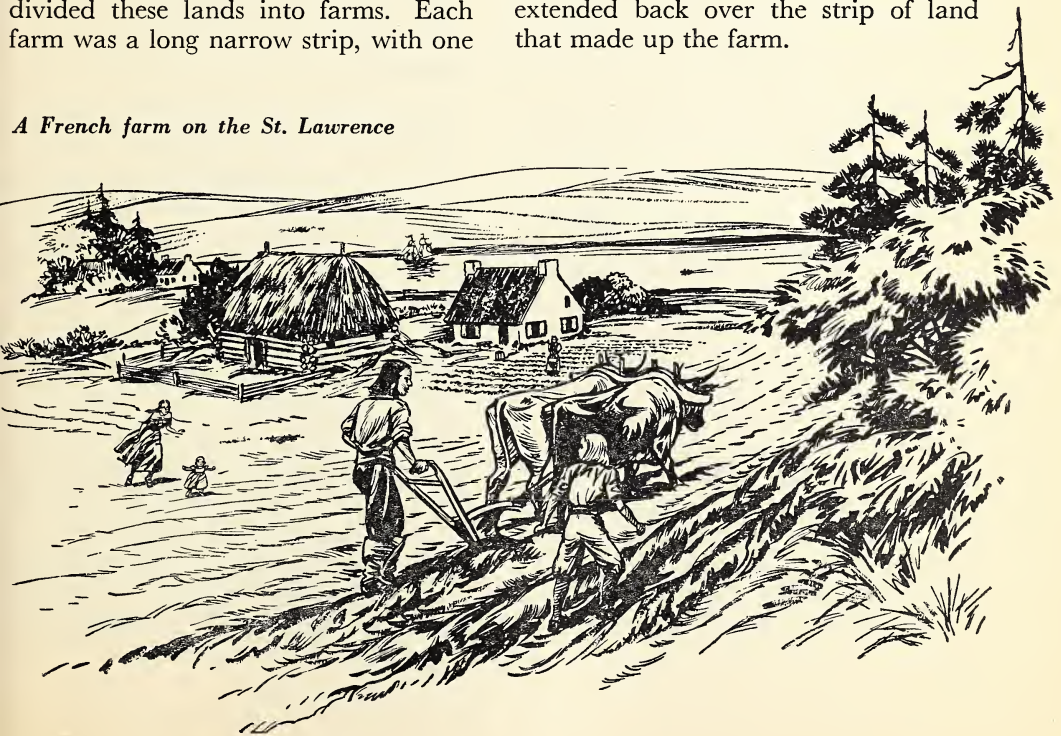
By the early 1700's, French colonists had been on the St. Lawrence for more than a hundred years. They were as much at home in the New World as the English colonists were. Most of the settlers in New France were farmers. Their farms stretched along the St. Lawrence from Quebec to Montreal and southward along the river that flows out of Lake Champlain. Large areas of land had been given to Frenchmen who were to find settlers. The owners divided these lands into farms. Each farm was a long narrow strip, with one

end on the bank of the river. A road ran along the top of the sloping river bank. The farmers built their homes along this road facing the river. The houses stood close together because each farm was so narrow.

The houses were made of whitewashed logs or stones. Their steep roofs extended down over the low outer walls. The front door opened to a large room used as a parlor, dining room, and kitchen. A ladder led to an upper story under the steep roof, where the children slept on straw or feather mats laid out in rows on the floor.

A barn made of rough logs stood at the rear of each house. In the back yard near the vegetable garden was a large cave. Potatoes, peas, beans, melons, and fruit were stored there for the long winter. The family baking was done in an outdoor oven. Fields of wheat, corn, barley, flax, and hemp extended back over the strip of land that made up the farm.

A French farm on the St. Lawrence



The people made most of their own clothing. In winter the men wore loose woollen trousers and coats that reached to their knees. The women wore woollen skirts and calico blouses. In summer all the children went barefoot. They wore only a garment without sleeves which reached to their knees and was drawn tight with a belt. Sunday was the dress-up day of the week. Then everyone wore his best clothes and went to the village church.

The people who came to settle in New France lived well. The farmers had plenty to eat and lived in plain but comfortable houses. In spite of all this, the colony of New France grew very slowly in population.

Spaniards and Russians in America

While the French were building missions, trading posts, and towns, they were not alone in North America. Pensacola was built in Spanish Florida.

Where the English and the French Claims Met

On the eastern side of North America the English traders and colonists were pushing in toward the lands claimed by France. Almost from the beginning there had been trouble between the English and the French in America. On page 66 you read about the fur-trading posts along the coast of Maine. Several times French ships from Port Royal sailed along the coast. They drove the Massachusetts traders away, robbing them of their goods and the furs they had collected.

Twice during the 1600's Port Royal was captured by colonial armies, helped by English soldiers and ships. This happened during European wars in which England and France were on

Far to the southwest, Mexico, then called New Spain, was expanding northward. You can find the new settlements on the map on page 84. Santa Fe was founded in the same year as Quebec, one year later than Jamestown. El Paso del Norte was founded in the year that William Penn came to Pennsylvania. San Antonio was founded in the same year as New Orleans.

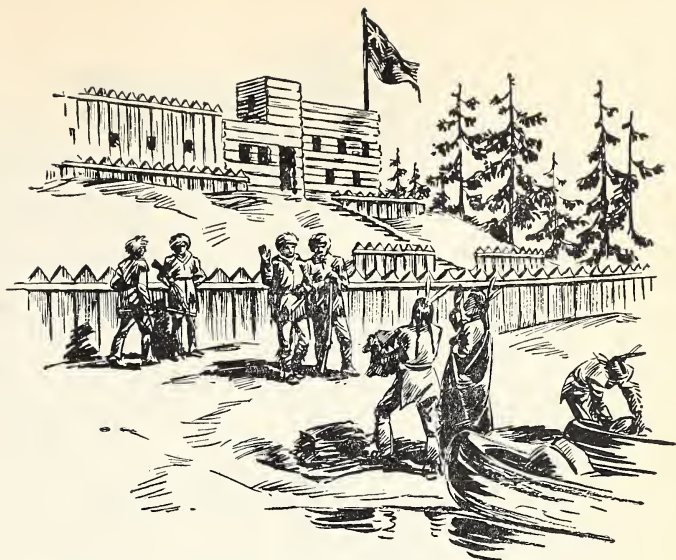
Like the English and French colonists, the Spanish settlers traded with the Indians. They also raised cattle on the grass lands. Some of the settlers began to farm on irrigated land along the rivers. Spanish missionaries taught Indians from the pueblos which Coronado had visited long before.

Along the far northwestern tip of the continent, Russian explorers began to sail. They were a long, long way from home. The Russians, like people of other nationalities, began to trade with the Indians for furs.

opposite sides. At the end of each war Port Royal was given back to France.

As you will remember, the Calvert family had moved to Newfoundland before they were given a charter to Maryland. A few English settlers lived in Newfoundland before the Calverts came, and a few remained after they left. Many English fishermen came for the summer. They spent part of their time ashore, drying and salting their fish. From time to time the French tried to drive the English away, but they never succeeded. French fishermen were allowed to land to dry their fish.

Far to the north more serious trouble arose. Do you remember Henry Hudson, who sailed up the Hudson River



A trading post on Hudson Bay

in 1609? Although he was sailing a Dutch ship, he was an Englishman. The next year he started on a voyage of exploration for his own country and discovered the great body of water we now call Hudson Bay.

More than fifty years later two Frenchmen travelled north from New France to Hudson Bay. They were Radisson and Groseilliers, the men who had explored Lake Superior. On the way they traded with the Indians and came back with their canoes loaded with valuable furs. At Quebec they told about the fine new fur country they had discovered, but officials were not interested in starting trading posts there.

Radisson and Groseilliers knew about the English claim to the region around Hudson Bay, and so they went to England. After they had told their story, a company was formed, called the Hudson's Bay Company. Forts and trading posts were soon built at the mouths of some of the rivers. You can find them on the map on page 84. Then the French realized what was happening and sent several expeditions to raid the posts. For many years it was a question whether this region was finally to be French or English.

Then another war broke out in Europe. Again England was on one side and France and Spain were on the other. Fighting went on in America as well as in Europe and on the ocean. At last the war was over and a *treaty* was signed. A treaty is an agreement that has been made between two or more countries. This treaty said that Newfoundland, Acadia, and the Hudson Bay region were to belong to England.

Settlers move west toward the mountains

Farther south the area of British settlement had been spreading westward. Turn back to the map on page 66 and look at the color which shows areas settled between 1700 and 1760.

Notice carefully what the map tells you about the land. Along the coast is a lowland which is wide in the south and narrow in the north. This is called the Atlantic Coastal Plain. Down to 1700 most of the settled area was on this lowland near the coast.

West of the early colonies there were mountains. In New England the mountains are only a little way from the coast. Farther south another region lies between the mountains and the coastal plain. This is marked "Piedmont" on the map on page 66. The land rises quite suddenly between the coastal plain and the Piedmont. This sudden rise is called the fall line, because most rivers have falls and rapids where they drop from the Piedmont to the Atlantic Coastal Plain.



Pioneers on a wilderness trail

Who were the pioneers?

Some of the people who began to move west were colonists who had been born and had grown up in America. More of them, however, were newcomers. Shipload after shipload of people came from Europe. They found that the best land near the coast was already being farmed or was too expensive for them to buy. A great many of these people went on beyond the settled areas and made homes on new land in the wilderness. People who go into unknown and unsettled country and stay to make their homes in the new land are called *pioneers*.

The trails taken by the early pioneers were often rough and hard to follow. Sometimes the men had to cut trails through the underbrush. Usually several families travelled together so as to help one another. Sometimes they travelled all the way on foot. Many families took at least one cow and some

chickens. Only a few clothes, tools, and cooking utensils could be taken. These were carried in large packs on the backs of horses. After choosing a place to settle, each family built as its home its own log cabin in the wilderness.

As people moved west from the colonies, there came to be a section of the country which was settled by only a few pioneer families. Beyond them was the unsettled wilderness. This land of the pioneers which separated the well-settled colonies from the unknown and unsettled wilderness came to be known as the *frontier*.

As you can see on the map, the Piedmont is narrower in Virginia and Maryland. In these colonies the region was well settled by 1760. Forts and trading posts were built along the fall line, between the coastal plain and the Piedmont. The most important was Fort Henry, which you will find on the map on page 75. You see, too, that there were settlers in the wide valleys

between the mountain ranges. Very few of them had come from the coastal regions of Virginia and Maryland. They had come from Pennsylvania.

On pages 69–70 you read about the settlement of Pennsylvania. You will remember how the English Quakers settled in Philadelphia and how German and Scottish-Irish settlers came soon after. The Pennsylvania Germans settled in a half-circle around Philadelphia. There they had good land and became fine farmers. In time they settled most of the land between Philadelphia and the Susquehanna River.

From the first the Scottish-Irish were real pioneers. Many of the first settlers on the Piedmont in the southern colonies were Scottish-Irish. More of them went to Pennsylvania than to any other colony, however. There most of them went on to the frontier beyond the German settlers. These sturdy people liked being pioneers.

To make him happy, the Scottish-Irish pioneer's house and barn did not have to be large or well built. He built a log cabin with a dirt floor and a chimney of sticks covered with mud. Next he chopped down or girdled the trees on a few acres of land. There he planted a patch of corn and a few vegetables. Then off he went into the forest with his long rifle. Perhaps his family did not have many pies, cakes, and puddings, but they had plenty of deer, bear, squirrel, and wild turkey to eat with their corn bread. They had fruit, too, even though it came from the wild berry bushes on the sunny hillsides rather than from an orchard.

As you can see on the map, anyone travelling westward in Pennsylvania must find his way through many mountain ridges. It was much easier for the

pioneers to follow the valleys southward than to travel west. The first valley to be settled in this way was the one called the Great Valley, just west of the Blue Ridge.

French and British in New France

The French were worried. Already settlers had moved up the Mohawk River toward Lake Ontario, and fur traders from Albany had posts farther west. In Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas there were a few settlers on rivers that flowed westward to the Mississippi.

The governor of New France sent a man whose name was Céleron to the Ohio Valley. Céleron and his French soldiers travelled from Lake Erie to the Allegheny River, then down the Allegheny to the Ohio. You can follow their route on the map. Along the way they buried plates of lead which said that the land belonged to France. They also drove out the British traders they found there.

One of the most important spots on the western frontier was the place where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers meet to form the Ohio. British traders occupied this spot first. After Céleron's trip, the French built Fort le Boeuf a little to the north.

Here a young Virginian named George Washington first appeared in American history. The governor of Virginia sent him with a message to Fort le Boeuf. The message told the Frenchmen that they were on British land and ordered them to leave. They refused.

Washington was sent to lead a little army of Virginians against the French. At the same time other colonists started to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio. Before it was finished, French soldiers

drove them away and built their own fort, which they called Fort Duquesne. Then the French went to meet Washington's Virginians and defeated them. This battle, in 1754, is usually considered the beginning of the Seven Years' War. The next year an army made up of both British and colonial soldiers marched through the wilderness to attack Fort Duquesne. This army, too, was badly defeated.

At last the British and colonial armies began to win victories. In 1758 Louisbourg, a French fort on Cape Breton Island, was captured. In 1759 Quebec was captured by the army of James Wolfe, a young English general. It was defended by the French commander Montcalm. Both generals were killed in the battle for Quebec.

The war went on after the capital of New France had been captured, but even the French must have known they would lose. In 1762 the king of France gave to Spain all his lands west of the Mississippi, including also the region around New Orleans.

The year 1763 is one of the dates you will wish to remember. In that year the Treaty of Paris was signed, ending the Seven Years' War. The French gave up all the lands on the mainland of North America. On every log fort in the forest, the flag of France came down and the British flag went up instead. Spain had helped France in the war, and now Florida, too, became British for a time. Spain still held New Orleans and the lands west of the Mississippi.

Living in the British Colonies in Late Colonial Days

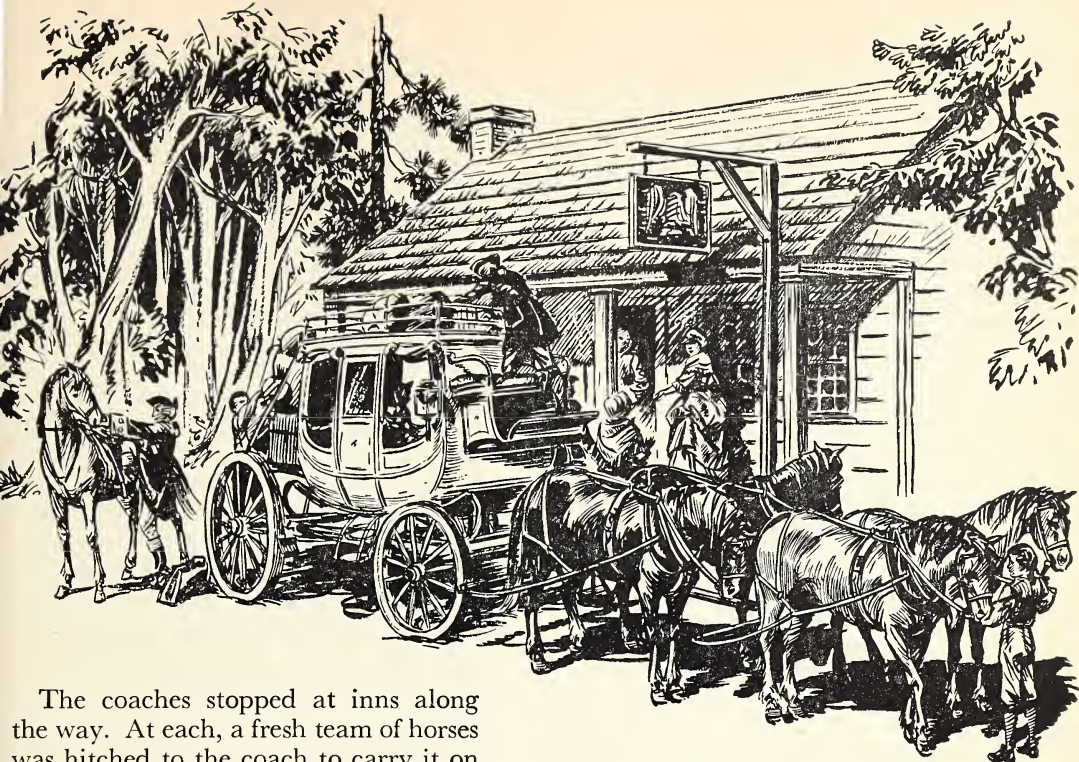
While the pioneers pushed westward, the land along the coast was becoming more densely populated. Cities were growing, though they were still small compared with large cities of today. Many small towns had grown up, especially in the northern colonies. You have seen what the colonies were like about 1700. Thirty or forty years later great changes had taken place.

In later colonial days, communities were not so cut off from one another as they had been earlier. People travelled more and heard more news from other places. Roads were still poor, but there were more of them than there had been earlier. Most of those which ran from one colony to another had started as post roads. They were laid out for the postriders, who carried mail. The postriders travelled on horseback, and at first the roads were only rough,

narrow trails. Later the post roads which connected the larger cities were widened so that they could be used by stagecoaches.

The first stagecoaches were only heavy wagons with a rounded cloth top which left the sides open. The passengers sat on wooden benches without backs. In later times, the body of the coach was hung from heavy straps of leather to make it ride more comfortably. Its sides were closed with leather curtains which had little windows.

Stagecoach travel was slow but exciting. One coach was called the *Flying Machine*, because it took only two days to travel from Philadelphia to New York. The coaches bounced and sometimes turned over when their wheels fell into deep ruts or rolled over logs that had been laid across a muddy place in the road.



The stagecoach stops at an inn

The coaches stopped at inns along the way. At each, a fresh team of horses was hitched to the coach to carry it on to the next inn. The coaches always stopped at an inn for the night. The inn was an exciting place where travelers by stage or horseback soon became acquainted. Sitting around the large dinner-table, they told stories and the news while they ate their meals.

Goods were carried overland in various ways during colonial times. Many people put their goods in large packs which were carried on the backs of horses. A horse could carry three hundred pounds in this way. In the towns and on the farms, carts were used. When better roads were made, large wagons were used to carry goods from one place to another.

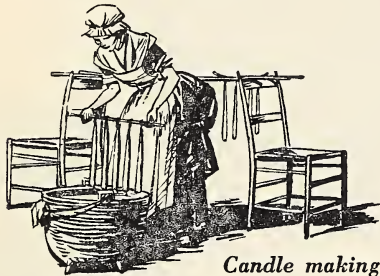
Settlers who lived along the coast could go to the other colonies and to Europe by boat. At many places the rivers made it possible to go into the country in small sailing boats. Many people had little sailing boats of their

own. Nearly everyone could afford a homemade canoe. Barges and rafts provided an easy way to carry goods down the rivers.

Homemade goods supply many needs

In later colonial times the cities had many shops. They also had markets to which farmers brought products to sell. Throughout the colonies there were little general stores, but people still had to make many things for themselves. Women made dresses and suits of linen which they had woven from flax fibres, and of woollens which they had woven from wool from the farm flock of sheep. The men prepared the flax and clipped the wool from the sheep. The women cleaned and straightened the fibres and spun them into yarn or thread on a spinning wheel.

A hand loom was used to weave the woollen yarn or linen thread into cloth. Next the linen was bleached and the wool was dyed. Dyes were usually homemade. Brown dye was made by boiling chips of bark in water. Berries were used for blue and red. At last the cloth was ready to be made into clothing, table linen, and coverings for beds.



Candle making

Candles were the best means of lighting in colonial days. Most women made their own candles. They made them either by dipping wicks into melted fat again and again until good-sized candles were formed, or by pouring the fat into molds to harden. Colonial housewives also made their own soap. It, too, was made from fat. People carefully saved all the fat they could, but they seldom had enough for all the candles they wanted.

Ways of living are improved

As the years passed, the colonists built better homes and improved their living in many ways. When people grew old and died, they left their homes to their sons and daughters. As grown men and women, these sons and daughters enjoyed a better living than their parents had. Do you see why this was true? They had more with which to start. Much of the land had been

cleared for them. They had more tools with which to do their work.

Different ways of living developed in the different colonies. The climate and soil of the colonies differed, and the same crops could not be raised everywhere. The people who came to the colonies had come from different parts of Britain and from many other countries. They had done different kinds of work and were used to different ways of living. Many of them kept part of their old ways in the New World.

You can see, then, that it is not possible to describe life in the colonies by giving just one picture. As you read the descriptions that follow, remember that you are not seeing how all the people in the colonies lived, but only how some of them lived.

Plantation life in the southern colonies

A southern plantation might cover five thousand acres, reaching miles along a river. Thus the planters lived far apart, and there were no good roads between the plantations. There were few towns. As you know, most planters lived beside the rivers, so that ships could sail right to their wharves to be loaded with tobacco. By later colonial times, most of the workers were slaves. They were directed in their work by an overseer.

Now imagine that you live on a plantation in Virginia in late colonial times. To the rear of the owner's house are small houses for the servants and cabins for the slaves. There are stables, a barn, a carriage house, a smokehouse for preparing meat, and another house where spinning and weaving are done. There are also shops for the blacksmith and the carpenter.

The planter's house is a large two-story building with a huge chimney and fireplace at each end. Along the front of it is a porch with tall pillars. The house is surrounded by a well-kept lawn, and there are trees, shrubs, and flower gardens.

On the first floor of the house are a large guest room for entertaining, a dining room, a study or library, and a large kitchen. The bedrooms are on the second floor.

The guest room is large and beautifully furnished. The walls are covered with paper brought from England and are decorated with paintings. The furniture is carved and highly polished. In the dining room is a huge table at which twenty people can be seated. It is covered with fine linen. China and glassware and silver dishes can be seen in the side cupboards. In the bedrooms are large beds with silk or chintz curtains around them.

The children dress like their parents. The boys wear embroidered jackets, knee breeches fastened at the knee with silver buckles, silk stockings, and silver-buckled shoes. The girls wear bright chintz dresses with full skirts, white aprons, white-silk stockings, and shoes with wooden heels covered with silk. The girls talk of nothing but the ship from England which is due in a day or so. Their father has ordered new clothes for everyone, and they can scarcely wait to see them. Each girl is to have a new coat of silk, a dress of velvet trimmed with lace, several pairs of white kid gloves, a plume for the hair, and new shoes.

There is no school near by. The children have classes in their own home. The teacher, who lives at their home, is called a tutor. When the boys are old enough, they may be sent to school in England. If not, they may go to one of the two oldest colleges

Friends are always welcome at the plantation



in the colonies, Harvard in Massachusetts or William and Mary in Virginia.

After classes with the tutor in the morning, the boys and girls have many things to learn about the plantation. Today the girls will watch their mother teach several young slaves how to spin. All girls learn to direct the servants in cooking, cleaning, weaving, and sewing. The boys ride horseback over the fields with their father to see how the crops are cared for. Today they will watch the men haul tobacco to the wharf. It has been packed in huge casks or barrels for shipping.

In the afternoon travellers come to the house, and the children spend the rest of the day helping to entertain them. Strangers travelling past the plantation are urged to stop and are always welcome. They are given good meals and comfortable beds. To the boys and girls these visits are exciting, for the travellers bring the latest news and many interesting stories.

Southern planters and their families have more time for pleasure than the farmers of the northern colonies. The slaves carry on the work. When the planters entertain their friends, the parties sometimes last several days, for most of the guests have travelled long distances. There are fox hunts and picnic dinners and usually a dance.

New York, a colonial seaport

The most important cities in the colonies were the seaports. In late colonial times, New York was one of the leading ports. In 1730, New York was a city of little more than 8000 people. From a ship in the harbor a seaman could see the buildings, set close together and lining the shore along the tip of Manhattan Island.

There were no tall buildings, but there were several towers and steeples which stood out against the sky. Three of these steeples marked the English, Dutch, and French churches.

To the left was a fort surrounded by a wall for protection. Above it waved the British flag. Another tower showed the location of the city hall, where the offices of the government were located. All along the shore were the many wharves used in loading and unloading ships.

After going ashore, a seaman would find that many of the smaller buildings near the water were counting-houses, where the merchants carried on their business. There were also warehouses and inns and taverns. The water front was a lively place. There merchants, farmers, fishermen, trappers, seamen, and Indians gathered to carry on business and discuss the news.

Farther away from the harbor were the homes of the people. Tradesmen, such as shoemakers, brickmakers, and blacksmiths, worked in their homes. A sign over the door told what the workman did, and the front room was used as a shop for displaying the goods.

The streets were narrow and wandering and were not paved. Each citizen had to sweep the street in front of his home. The dirt was collected once a week and carted away. At night the streets were lighted by lanterns hung on poles at every seventh house. The seven neighbors had to buy the candles for their lantern.

Although many of the homes and public buildings were made of brick, there were also many of wood. The danger of fire was great. The city government had fire buckets made and placed them in homes throughout the



Menngvriathen



A rainy afternoon in a New England home

city. When the alarm was given, all the men ran for their buckets and formed a double line from the river to the fire. Buckets of water were passed as quickly as possible from person to person up one line to the fire. Empty buckets were returned to the river by the other line. When the fire was out, the men claimed their buckets and returned home.

At home in a New England village

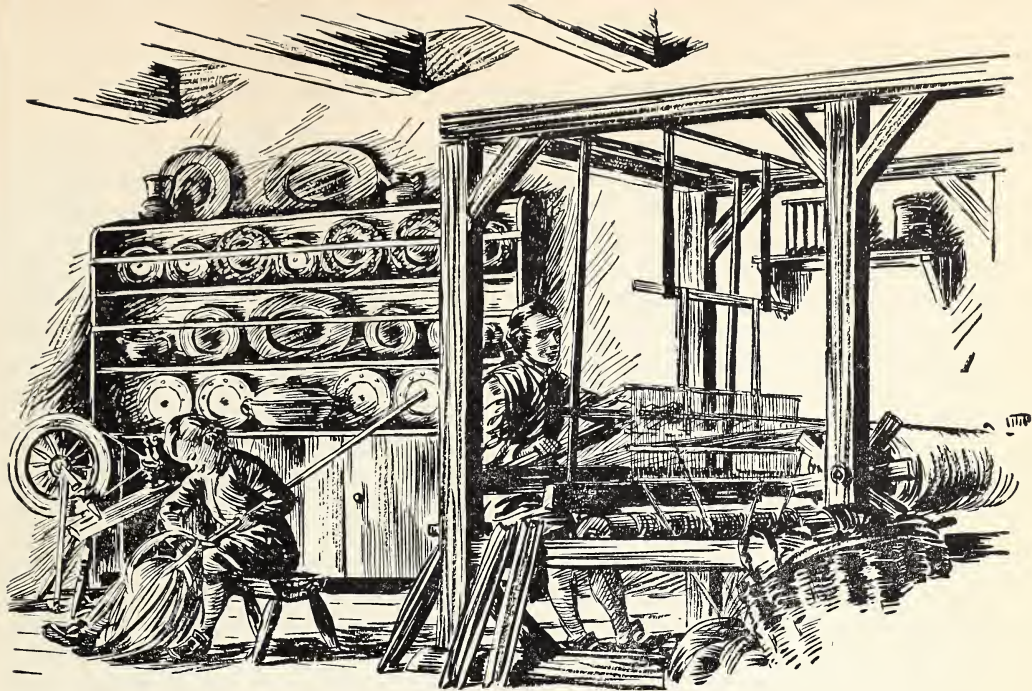
What kind of life might you have had if you had lived in a New England village in later colonial times? Imagine a small town with only two streets. There is a little square where the streets cross. At its centre stands the town pump from which the families of the town get their water for drinking, cooking, and washing. The streets

are not paved. In spring they are muddy and in summer they are dusty.

The houses of the town are scattered along the crooked streets. Some of them are only log cabins with one large room and a loft. The better houses are made of planks and boards which were cut at the sawmill. They are roofed with pine shingles. These houses have two rooms on the first floor. The large room is a kitchen and dining room. The smaller one is a bedroom for father and mother and the little children. The older children sleep above, in the loft under the steep roof.

Beneath the low, sloping roof at the back of the house is an extra room which is used for storing the winter supply of food. The supplies are neatly packed in barrels, wooden kegs, and clay jars. Pieces of dried and smoked meat hang from the ceiling.

At the back of the house is a shed where the farming tools are kept. This



shed serves as a windbreak in the cold winter, and it joins the house to the barn where the animals are sheltered. The barn smells of grain, for there are bins of barley and wheat. The hayloft is overhead. Near the house is a small vegetable garden, but the corn and other crops are raised on the family's farm a little way from the town.

In the house the big kitchen is rather bare, with no curtains or rugs. The table and benches are made of heavy planks, but there are some chairs, which are more carefully made. On the open shelves of the cupboard are wooden bowls, plates, cups, and spoons. Usually two members of the family eat from the same dish, called a trencher. A trencher is a small, square block of wood hollowed in the centre to form a bowl.

The large open fireplace, built of stone and brick, makes the big kitchen warm and bright. All the cooking is done over the open fire. Large kettles

hang on hooks from an iron rod or crane. Iron pots with stumpy legs stand in the red-hot coals. There is an oven built into one end of the fireplace. In this the bread, pies, and puddings are baked.

Here is what one day in this home might be like. In the morning the children hurry down from the cold loft overhead to the warm kitchen. Each girl is dressed in a plain dress of homespun woollen with a long, full skirt. Like her mother, she wears a little white cap and a white apron. The boys wear knee breeches, long stockings, and waistcoats reaching to their knees.

Father comes in from milking the cows. Mother has prepared the breakfast, and on the table are the trenchers filled with hot porridge. Everyone drinks milk from wooden cups.

After breakfast the youngest boy and girl leave for school. They haven't far to go, for school is taught by a woman who lives near by. All the

young children of the village gather in her kitchen around the fireplace. While she sews, they learn to read and write. This is called a dame school.

The children learn to read from a hornbook, which is a thin piece of wood with a handle. Fastened to the wood is a piece of paper. On it the alphabet and the Lord's Prayer are printed. A sheet of horn covers the paper. It is yellowish in color, but the letters can be seen through it. The little girls learn to sew and knit. Each one is stitching threads of different colors on linen. When finished, these pieces of linen, called samplers, will show in careful stitching the alphabet, the girl's name, and a Bible verse.

The older boy goes to the village school, a small frame building. The

desks are rough tables against the wall. Both teacher and pupils sit on wooden benches. Pupils write with charcoal on birch bark. The schoolhouse is heated by a large open fireplace, and the parents of the boys furnish the wood. If parents forget to give their share of firewood, their son must sit in the coldest part of the room. The teacher is paid with wheat, corn, beaver skins, or whatever the family can give. He lives with each boy's family for a week during the school year.

While the youngest ones are at school, the oldest girl and her mother spend the morning cooking and baking. They make apple and pumpkin pies, corn-meal pudding, baked beans, and mutton stew. In the afternoon the mother cards wool while the daughter spins it into yarn. Father spends the day in the forest cutting trees for firewood.

After school the younger children play games, such as tag and leapfrog. The older boy hurries home to drive the oxen and heavy wagon to the woods to haul the firewood.

In the evening one of the boys helps his father make a broom, while the other boy whittles a wooden spool for the loom. The mother sews and the girls knit mittens. Most of the evenings are spent quietly around the fireplace until the early bedtime.

On Sunday the whole family goes to church. The church, a large frame building, stands near the centre of the town. Each family sits together in its own pew. There is a partition about four feet high

A New England church



around the pew. The little children can hardly see over it. They can see the minister because his pulpit is high up in the front of the church. The church is plain and cold. There is not even a fireplace in it. The people must keep their heavy wraps on throughout the service. Some bring fur robes to keep their feet warm.

What a long service! The minister preaches more than two hours. At noon most people will eat a basket lunch. In the afternoon there will be another long church service.

People in towns such as this worked hard, but they had good times, too. Much of their pleasure came from working together. When a man wanted to build a new house or barn, his neighbors helped him. Working together, they could build a barn or a house in

one day, if the lumber was cut and ready. The women and children came to the barn-raising, too. The women visited, sewed, and prepared the meals. Neighbors came together in the same way to husk corn in the fall. Then there were contests and games, as well as work. The women often gathered at some family's home for a quilting party or to make the family's clothing.

The town managed its own affairs in town meetings. The voters met, usually at the church, to talk over problems of the community. They elected the town officials. They might vote to build a better schoolhouse, to hire a new minister, to improve the road to the next town, or to make rules about how houses should be built to prevent fires. The people of New England were proud of their town meetings.

The History Workshop

The history of Canada

What happened in Canada in the period covered in this section? Use the time charts on the end pages of this book.

A time chart for American history

Here you have many choices for your chart. It covers a long period, beginning with 1650 and ending in the 1760's. The time will not divide evenly into half-centuries. If you bring the chart down to 1750, you will have important events left over. You will probably wish to start the next fifty years and add to this part later.

The history of your own community

No doubt you will really have something for your community history this time. Find the location of your own home on the map on page 84. Perhaps you live in one of the areas settled between 1650 and 1763. You may live in the land over which the French fur traders travelled.

The history of the world

- 1666—The Great Fire of London.
- 1679—Habeus Corpus Act.
- 1683—King John Sobieski of Poland saves Vienna from the Turks.
- 1688—The Bill of Rights is passed.
- 1703—Peter the Great at the Baltic.
- 1704—Battle of Blenheim.
- 1707—Union of Scotland and England to form the Kingdom of Great Britain.
- 1729—The Wesleys found Methodism.
- 1740—Frederick the Great rules Prussia.
- 1756—The Seven Years' War begins.
- 1757—Clive wins India at Plassey.
- 1763—The Peace of Paris.

Do you recognize these descriptions?

1. Most of the people live on long, narrow farms, in houses of whitewashed logs or stone. They grow wheat, corn, barley, flax, and hemp. In the towns, the most important business is fur trading. The people make most of their own clothing.

2. Farms are small and people raise food chiefly for their own use. There are many towns and villages. People depend upon fishing, shipbuilding, trading, lumbering, and manufacturing, as well as farming.

3. The people have reached their homes by travelling over long, difficult forest trails. They live in log cabins. Many of them have farms that are only corn patches in small, stump-filled clearings. Wild game and wild fruit are important parts of their food supply.

4. There are many Dutch, German, Scottish-Irish, and Welsh people, as well as English. Wheat, rye, oats, barley, and potatoes furnish food and products for export. Iron, pottery, and glass manufactures are important.

5. Many people live on plantations. In some parts of the area tobacco is grown, and in other parts rice and indigo are important. Plantation workers are indentured servants or slaves. There are few towns.

Whose colonies were they?

At the left side of a piece of paper, list the colonies named below. After each one write the name of the people who founded the colony. You will need to use the names English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Swedish, and you will need to remember what you learned in earlier sections of the book. Save your list for the next exercise.

Acadia	Maryland	Newfoundland
Brazil	Massachusetts	North Carolina
Connecticut	New France	Pennsylvania
Cuba	New Jersey	Rhode Island
Florida	New Netherland	South Carolina
Georgia	New Spain	Virginia
Louisiana	New Sweden	

Where were these places?

On the list you just made, write the names of the following towns. Write each name after the colony in which it was located. Some colonies will have more than one town. There are no names in the list for some of the other colonies.

If you cannot remember all the places, look for them on the maps you have used in this book.

Annapolis, Augusta, Baltimore, Boston, Charleston, Christina, Jamestown, Montreal, New Amsterdam, New Orleans, Newark, Pensacola, Philadelphia, Providence, Quebec, Saint Augustine, San Antonio, Santa Fe, Savannah, Wilmington.

Which are the right names?

In the sentences below are names used for people and things you have read about. Copy the sentences, leaving out the names that are not correct. Be careful. Sometimes you will need to use more than one of the names in parentheses.

1. An agreement made between countries is called a (war, law, claim, treaty).

2. Voters in English colonies elected representatives to (missions, parliaments, Congress, assemblies) to make their laws.

3. A place where canoes were carried from one river to another was called a (portage, trading post, market, river bank).

4. Land at the edge of a settled region may be called the (frontier, boundary, Piedmont, wilderness).

5. People who go to unsettled land to make their homes are called (explorers, pioneers, farmers, Pilgrims).

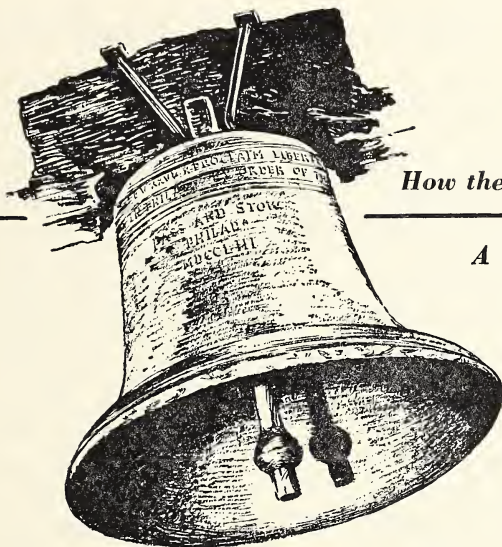
6. A group of people, such as the Dutch, English, or French, who have their own ways of living and in most cases their own language, is called a (company, community, nationality, settlement).

7. A colonist who signed a paper promising to work for the person who paid his fare to America was called (a proprietor, an indentured servant, a slave, a planter).

8. (Quakers, Puritans, Huguenots, Iroquois) were colonial religious groups.

9. An area almost like a country, but not entirely free to govern itself, was called a (plantation, town, clearing, colony).

10. The Frenchmen who travelled over North America were (voyageurs, postriders, missionaries, coureurs de bois).



How the Thirteen Colonies Became

A NEW NATION



How the Thirteen Colonies Became a New Nation

A Colonist Looks at North America in 1763

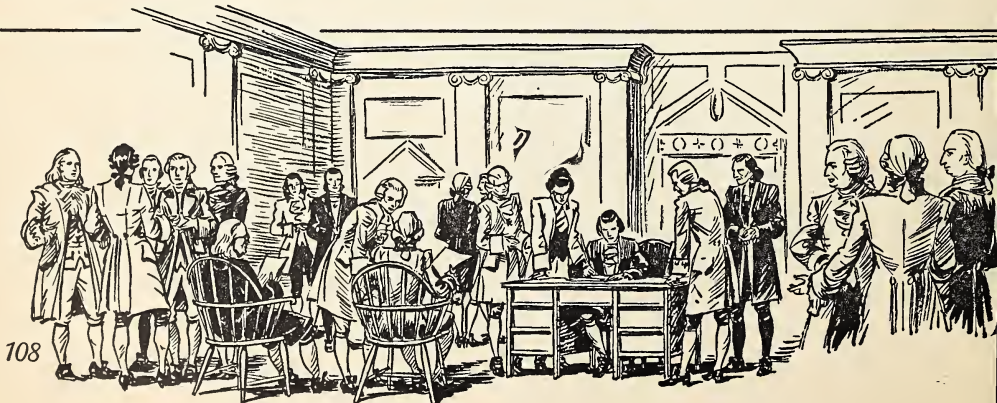
In the year 1763 many British colonists were thinking about lands to the west beyond the mountains. The Treaty of Paris had been signed. France had lost its whole empire on the continent of North America. For the British colonists, new frontiers were open all the way to the Mississippi.

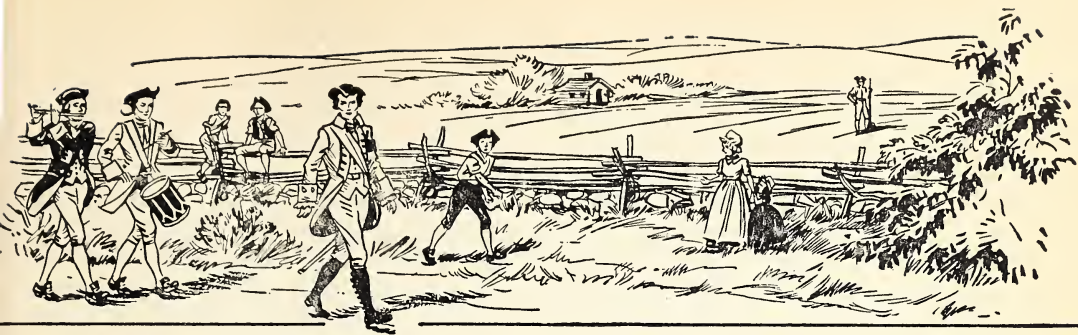
The rivers flowing toward the west seemed to lead the settlers on. The land was covered with tall trees that could be cut down for log cabins. The forest was the home of thousands of animals to furnish meat and furs. Somewhere beyond the mountains a farm waited for every man who wanted one.

This was a land of promise for the restless pioneer who could be happy

only on a new frontier. It was a land of promise for people in Europe who never could hope to own farms in the old lands. Even in the long-settled region near the coast there were thousands of people who dreamed of fine farms beyond the mountains.

No French fur traders and soldiers dared to drive the settlers away now. It was true that Indians lived on the western lands, but the settlers did not worry much about them. Most of the Indians had been friends of the French traders. Without the French to help and encourage them, they could easily be driven from the lands the pioneers wanted. Of course the pioneers did not expect to take all the Indian lands.





People of colonial days believed that centuries would pass before such a large area could be settled.

To the north, the land was British now all the way to the Arctic Ocean. Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, which the French had called Acadia, and the land around Hudson Bay had been British before the Seven Years' War. Now all of New France was British, too.

West of the Mississippi were the colonies of Spain. First came Louisiana. You have learned how La Salle claimed the valley of the Mississippi and all its tributaries for France. The Mississippi Valley was called Louisiana. Then, during the Seven Years' War, France gave to Spain all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi.

Beyond Louisiana, west and southwest, lay New Spain. This land of dry, grassy plains and high, snow-covered mountains, of deserts where Coronado's

men searched for the seven rich cities of Cibola, was scarcely real to the colonists. It was too far away. The most adventurous Scottish-Irish pioneer of 1763 could hardly dream that his grandchildren and great-grandchildren might push the frontier into these Spanish lands.

No one knew where on a map to draw the boundary line between the Spanish lands and the British lands to the north. But no one really cared. The French claim to Louisiana had included the valley of the farthest little stream whose water reached the Mississippi. Out at the edges, though, this claim was only words on a piece of paper. The farthest tributaries of the Mississippi were unknown. French fur traders had crossed this northern region. A few British traders from Hudson Bay had crossed their paths, as you saw on the map on page 84. But that was all.



Spain already had a vast empire in the Americas. These cold northern lands were far away from the settled regions of Louisiana and New Spain. They did not fit into Spanish ways of living. Spanish settlers did not wish to go there. Thus the great North-West region was left to the traders of the Hudson's Bay Company.

We have been trying to look at North America as a colonist might have seen it in 1763. He could not have

dreamed that within a few years the colonists would fight a war for independence, called the American Revolution. He could have had no idea that the western lands would be settled so rapidly. One young man, named Daniel Boone, then living on the frontier in the Carolinas, was to spend his last years on a new frontier beyond the Mississippi.

Now you are going to learn how all this came to be. The history of the United States is about to begin.

Just before the Revolution in the American Colonies

While pioneers dreamed of farms beyond the mountains, the Indians were worried. What would happen to them? They knew what had happened earlier along the coast. The same thing had happened over and over again. A few settlers came to a place. They gave the Indians knives, kettles, and bright-colored cloth. In return, the Indians allowed them to use the land.

The settlers built a few cabins. The Indians understood that. Sometimes the first cabins were not very different from the Indians' own homes. When settlers cleared a patch of ground and planted corn, the Indians still understood. They, too, had patches of corn.

Then the settlers said the Indians must leave. The Indians had not expected to do this. When they sold their land for knives and kettles and cloth, they had not understood that the Europeans expected them to leave.

If one family had come to a place and cleared land for a farm, the Indians would not have been disturbed. It seemed, though, that there were endless numbers of the palefaces. Each settler marked off a large area of forest and said that it was his. Other people

could not use it. Each winter he cut down more trees. He was not satisfied with his corn patch. Besides corn, he wanted to raise many strange plants the Indians had never seen. He wanted cleared fields with grass growing on them, where animals could graze. The animals were his, too. The Indians could not hunt them.

Indians did not own land as Europeans did. A very large area belonged to the whole tribe. Any member of the tribe was free to hunt on this land. The Indians did not know how Europeans lived or how they would use the land. Europeans did not realize that the Indians misunderstood. Neither the Europeans nor the Indians could quite imagine a way of living different from their own.

Indians or settlers?

By the end of the Seven Years' War, most of the Indians understood what would happen when settlers came. Now the pioneers were beginning to cross the mountains. The Indians feared they would be crowded out again.

Sometimes the Indians tried to drive the settlers away. They would steal

up to a cabin at night and set it afire. They would burn an entire pioneer village and kill or drive away all the settlers. This did no good. It only made all the settlers angry. Even colonists who lived far away sent soldiers to aid the settlers.

Perhaps even some soldiers of the British king would come, dressed in bright-red coats. Each man had a gun. The soldiers made careful plans and all worked together in carrying them out. They built forts and left men to guard them. Whether it was red-coated soldiers or settlers in deerskin shirts, it did no good for an Indian war party to beat them. More would come next week or next month.

The Indians were not used to the white man's way of fighting. They had never worked together on plans requiring a great many people, but they seemed to be learning. Soon after the Seven Years' War ended in America, the Indians made a well-planned attack over all the western country. They captured fort after fort. Then they attacked the pioneers all along the frontier, from New England to Georgia.

Shortly before the Seven Years' War began, the British government had appointed two men to deal with the Indians, one in the north and one in the south. They were called Indian superintendents. The Indians liked and trusted these men. Now the Indians complained to the superintendents about the many settlers on their lands. The settlers were spoiling their hunting grounds. Many even took land and did not pay for it.

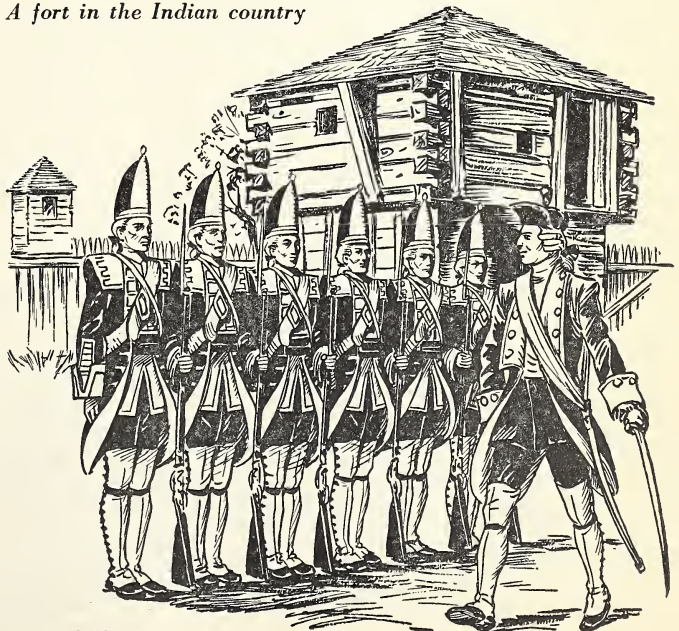
The superintendents agreed that the Indians were not being treated fairly.

The English government decided that this was not a safe time for pioneers to move west of the mountains. Later, arrangements would be made with the Indians to open up large areas for settlement. The government said that settlers might move as far west as the sources of rivers flowing to the Atlantic. For the present they were not to go farther. The land beyond was to belong to the Indians.

The pioneers were very angry. Now that the French were gone, they wanted to move at once beyond the mountains. They wanted the land for farms. To the pioneers it seemed that the Indians had no right to the land, since they wanted to use it only for hunting.

The Indians were right. The land had always belonged to them. Their way of owning the land was suited to their way of living. It was the only way they knew. The pioneers were

A fort in the Indian country



How the Thirteen Colonies Became a New Nation

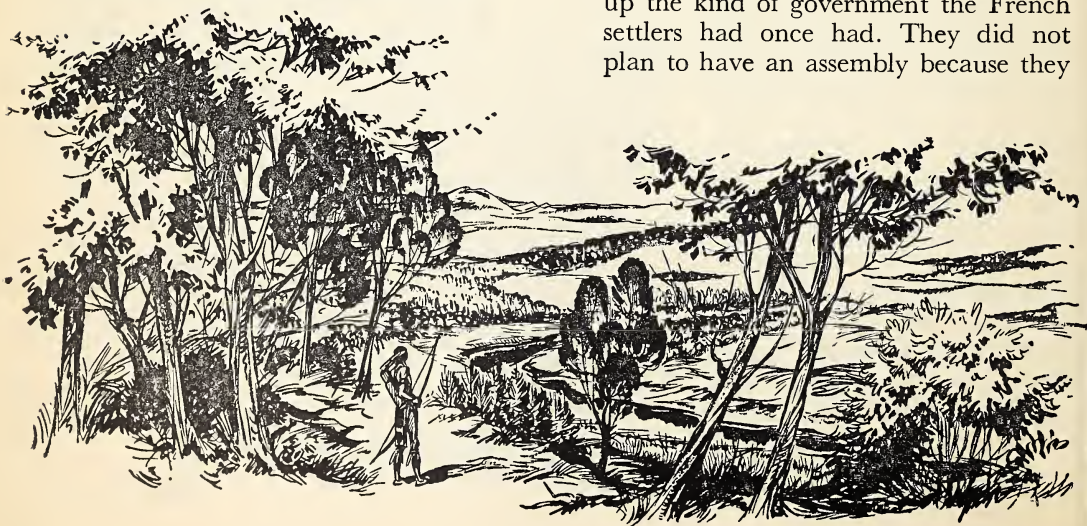
right, too. Only a few Indians could make a living on a large area of land. A great many more farmers could make a living on the same land. The British government also was right. It would have been better for settlers to stay out of new lands until it was safe for them to go there. It would have been better to pay the Indians for an area, sign a treaty with them, and find a place for them to go.

If you had been an Indian, you would probably have thought of the western lands as the Indians did. If you had been a pioneer settler, you would have thought of them as the settlers did. If you had been a government official, you would have thought of them as the government did.

Even the colonists along the coast were angry about the Indian Boundary Line. This was the name given to the imaginary line beyond which the land was to be kept for the Indians. Later the British government made other laws that angered the colonists still more.

The land that had been taken from the French had to have a government.

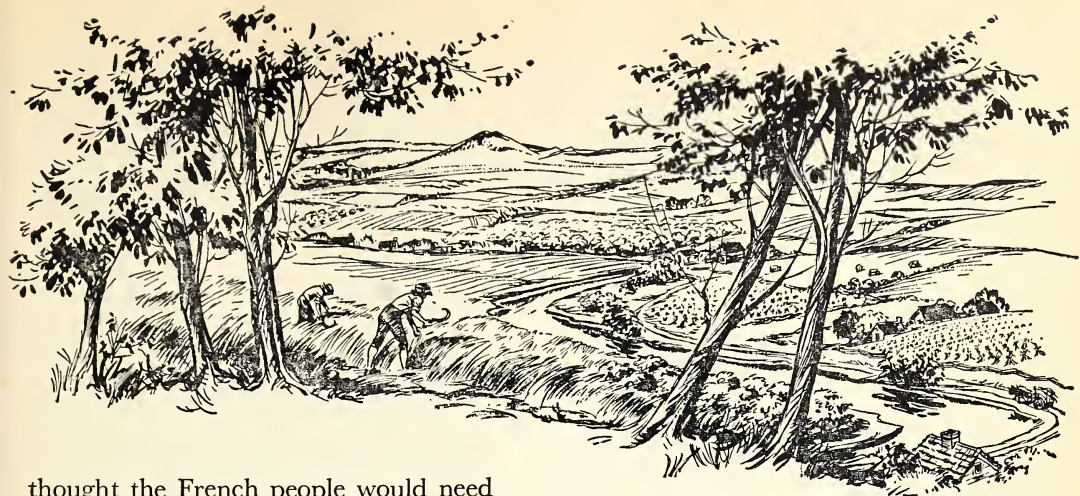
Using the land as a hunting ground



Nearly all of the settlers were French. Now the British government set up a new colony to include the French settlements along the St. Lawrence. On the south it was to reach all the way to the Ohio River. On the west it was to go to the Mississippi. The entire area was to be called Quebec.

There was sure to be trouble, for nearly all the land between the Great Lakes and the Ohio was claimed by the thirteen colonies. The early charters had been written at a time when no one knew how wide the continent was. Most of the charters said that a colony should extend from sea to sea. Naturally, the colonists felt that the British government was taking away land that belonged to them.

The colonists did not like the kind of government that was being set up for Quebec. As you know, the thirteen colonies had their own assemblies. They elected most of their own officers and made their own laws. At this time, Britain and the British colonies were the only countries in the world in which the people expected to govern themselves. The British officials who planned the government of Quebec set up the kind of government the French settlers had once had. They did not plan to have an assembly because they



Using the land for farming

thought the French people would need time to learn to govern themselves. The seigneurs and the church leaders kept their positions of authority. They could again legally collect their dues from the people. Property and other civil rights were to remain under French law.

The people of the thirteen colonies were well satisfied with the English law used in their courts. English law gave the citizen more rights than any other law of those days. A right is something a government says its people shall have or shall be free to do. For example, you have a right to go to school and to use the public library. When you are twenty-one you will have the right to vote.

Already some British people had come to Quebec. The traders of New England and the Atlantic colonies hoped to do business there. They wanted to keep their rights under English law in Quebec. The Quebec Act angered them; it pleased the seigneurs and church leaders of Quebec.

Who should pay for defence?

In spite of the laws to hold them back, settlers continued to cross the mountains. As many people expected, the Indians continued to attack the settlements. They did not attack just

the settlers who had gone beyond the Indian Boundary Line. They were trying to frighten the settlers along the whole frontier. The settlers asked for soldiers to protect them. Out of this need for protection grew some of the most important events in the history of North America. It led to the war that gave independence from Britain.

This was not the only cause of war, to be sure. Events which bring about great changes in people's ideas and in their living usually have more than one cause. As you read, watch for the new ideas, as well as for the events, which led to the War for Independence.

Armies and wars cost a great deal of money. They did not cost so much two hundred years ago as they did later because the equipment used was much simpler and armies were small. Nations had fewer people and much less money than they have today, however. The cost seemed very large.

The money that any government spends must come from *taxes*; that is, it is collected from the people. There are many kinds of taxes and many ways of collecting them. In almost



Dutch



German



Scottish-Irish



Swedish

People of many nationalities were

all countries today, people pay income taxes. They pay to the government a share of everything they earn. People are usually asked to pay taxes on land and other property they own. The more property they own, the larger taxes they must pay. Customs duties are still another kind of taxes. They are taxes on goods imported into a country.

Before and during the Seven Years' War the British government had spent large sums of money to protect the colonies. The money had come from taxes paid by the people of Britain. It had been used to pay and equip British soldiers sent to the colonies. Some of it had been given to the colonies to help pay the expenses of colonial armies.

British rights

In Britain all government money was controlled by Parliament. The men who were elected to Parliament by the British people decided what taxes should be collected and how the money was to be spent. Only the people's own representatives had the right to collect money from the people.

As you know, the colonial assemblies were modelled on the British Parliament. In America the assemblies voted on the taxes to be collected and decided how the money should be spent.

Now many people in Britain thought the colonists should pay for their own defence. The British people had spent

large sums of money. Debts were still owed to people who had furnished the supplies for the soldiers. With Indian attacks going on all along the frontiers, it looked as if much more fighting might be necessary.

Most colonists agreed that the colonies should defend themselves against the Indians, but they did not vote much money for the purpose. The British government thought it was not enough.

There was another difficulty. Not all the colonies had western frontiers. Only Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina had very many frontier settlers who needed protection. The colonists of Massachusetts or Connecticut could see no reason why they should help defend the pioneers in Pennsylvania or Virginia. Remember that the colonies were almost as separate as entirely different countries. It is only in very recent times that people of one country have thought they should help defend the people of another country against attack.

British attempts to collect increased taxes from the colonies led to quarrels and misunderstandings. Some of the quarrels were old ones that had not been serious at first. Some were new quarrels that had grown out of changes in the colonies. Others came about because of new ideas in the world.

We need to think first about some of the changes that had taken place in



French Huguenot



Indian



African



Welsh

Neighbors in the new land

the colonies. There had now been British colonies in America for more than a century and a half. From a few hundred, the population had increased to about two and a half million. This was about one-third as many people as there were in England. At first there had been only a few tiny settlements on the coast. Now the land was settled all the way to the mountains and even beyond them in places.

Most of the early colonists had come from England. As time passed, many settlers of other nationalities came to America. Now almost half the colonists were not English.

Many new ideas had come into the world while the colonies were growing up. One new idea was the belief in freedom. For example, many people had come to America because of their religious beliefs. Now, in both America and Britain, people had the right to hold any religious beliefs they chose. In other words, they had religious freedom. They also had freedom of speech in both America and Britain. That is, people were not punished for saying what they thought, even when that meant finding fault with the government. Whether they lived in Britain or America, British citizens had many more rights now than they had had one hundred fifty years before. They had also done much more thinking about the rights people should have.

At home in America

Now, at the end of the Seven Years' War, the colonists thought of themselves as Americans. They had come to be at home in America. Let us consider how an English farmer in Pennsylvania might have thought about this. In England, he raised the crops his neighbors raised and lived as they did. All the people around him were Englishmen.

Now his home is in Pennsylvania. His neighbors are as likely to be German as English, and some of them may be Welsh or Scottish-Irish. They may not speak English well. Their clothes, houses, ways of working, and even their ideas may be different from his. If they come from a country other than his own, they seem strange to him at first. After a time he learns to understand and get along with them very well.

Even in the later colonial days in which he lives he finds many things that look crude and unfinished. He may work on his farm all his life without getting it just as he wants it.

This new America sometimes seems a little strange to our farmer. He wonders what life would have been like if he had never left England. Would it have been easier? Perhaps it would. He would not have had to get used to so many strange ways. He would not have had to clear new fields, grub up stumps, split rails for fences, dig ditches, dig a well, work

on the roads. Then he looks around at his land. He would not have had a fine, big farm like this in England. He might not have owned any land.



He thinks of his old friends in England. He would like to see them again—those boys he grew up with. If only England were not so far away! Then he sees his son coming up the lane with a fishpole over his shoulder. This new land never seems strange to young John. He will never sigh for his friends and home in old England. He was only a baby when the family came over, and he doesn't remember. *This* is John's home—the place *he* will always remember. "Why!" his father thinks. "Young John isn't really an Englishman at all! He's an American!"

By later colonial times there were thousands and thousands of people like young John, who thought of America as home. They thought of what was good for their colony before they thought of the good of Britain or of the British Empire as a whole, or even of the neighboring colonies in America. Then there were the colonists of other nationalities. They naturally felt even less loyalty to Britain. Remember that the colonies felt less need of Britain than they had felt earlier. They were safe from France. They believed they would soon be safe from the Indians. Think, too, of the new ideas about the rights people should have and about freedom.

If you keep these things in mind, you will not find it hard to understand these quarrels between Britain and the colonies.

You remember the problem that the British government was facing. More money was needed from the colonies. How could it be raised? This was truly a problem. Wiser officials in Britain might have found a peaceful way of solving it. George III, who was king at this time, was not very wise. Parliament did not wish to anger the colonists, but most of its members did not understand them. The colonists did not understand the many problems which Parliament had to face.

Old trade laws

To understand one serious quarrel, you will need to think back a long way, to the time the early colonies were founded. In the middle 1600's Parliament passed the first laws that affected colonial trade. One law said that goods should be carried to and from England and the colonies in English ships. This law did not bother the colonists. Their ships were considered English ships. The law was really intended to keep the Dutch traders from profiting by carrying colonial goods.

Other trade laws were passed from time to time. These laws were intended to be of help to merchants in England. One law said that certain articles must be sent to England before they were exported to other countries.

Suppose, for example, a New England ship captain had loaded a cargo of sugar and spice in Jamaica. He knew he could get a good price for these tropical products in Sweden, but he could not take them directly to Sweden. He had to take them first to England

and sell them to an English merchant. Customs duties were collected on them in England. The English merchant who handled the goods made a profit. In the same way, goods from other countries must go through an English port before being sent to the colonies.

Later laws charged heavy duties on goods from the colonies of other countries. Other laws forbade the colonists to export certain kinds of manufactured goods. Hats and cloth were among these goods. The colonists could make them for their own use, but they could not sell them outside their own colony. These laws were made to build up the trade of the motherland.

All countries with colonies had trade laws. All had founded colonies for the same purposes. They all expected the colonies to produce goods that could not be produced at home. British colonists were allowed more freedom to trade and manufacture than Spanish and French colonists were allowed. It was true, nevertheless, that the British colonists objected much more than the Spanish and French did. Why should this have been so?

Probably there were many reasons. People in the British colonies had the right to object to what they did not like. Spanish and French colonists had no assemblies. They had no way of getting together to say that they did not like a law, and they could not make laws of their own.

During these earlier colonial times, the trade laws would have caused more

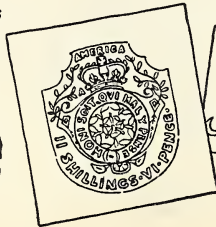
trouble if people had paid more attention to them. In fact, however, the British government had never tried very hard to make people obey them.

Who should tax the colonists?

Now the British government decided that the colonists must raise more money by taxes. They gave the assemblies a chance to vote the money, but it was not done. Parliament made one law after another which angered the colonists. The laws were not really very hard on the colonists. The taxes were not heavy, and the money was to be used entirely in the colonies. The colonists were not being asked to help the home country. The money was to be spent for their own defence. Let us examine the laws to see why the colonists objected. You need not remember the separate laws, but it will be easier to understand what was happening if you read about them now.

In 1764, just after the Seven Years' War, the British Parliament passed the Sugar Act. *Act* is another name for law. Now people would really have to obey the old trade laws. Duties were to be collected on imported indigo, coffee, and silk and cotton materials, as well as on sugar. Many colonists felt that this law interfered with their trade.

In 1765 Parliament decided that the colonists should pay a stamp tax. This meant that they were to buy stamps and place them on important papers and on some of the things they bought and sold. This was not an unusual kind of



Tax stamps

How the Thirteen Colonies Became a New Nation

tax. There was a stamp tax in Britain. Even now stamp taxes are collected. You may have seen the small stamp on a package of cigarettes.

Sometimes people could not get the stamps easily when they needed them. It was not really the inconvenience they minded, however. It was **not even** the amount of the tax. The **colonists** objected to being taxed at all by the British Parliament.

A young man in the Virginia Assembly became famous because of his opposition to the Stamp Act. His name was Patrick Henry. He made a speech in which he said that Englishmen carried their rights with them wherever they went. One of their rights was not to be taxed except by their own representatives. In Britain the members of Parliament were elected by the British people. They represented the people, and they decided what taxes the British people should pay. The colonists did not elect members of Parliament. They

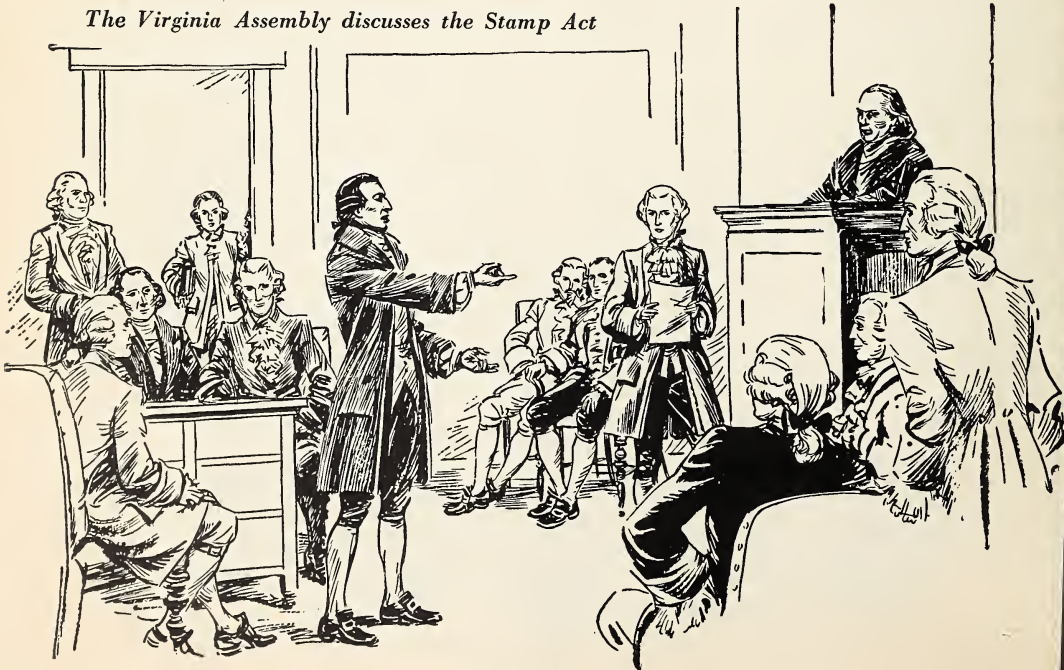
had representatives only in their own assemblies. Only their own assemblies, therefore, should tax them.

So the colonists asked to have the Stamp Act *repealed*. Lawmakers who can make a law can also repeal it. When a law has been repealed, that law no longer exists. Many people in England thought the colonists were right. No one wanted to make the colonists angry. Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in 1766.

In 1767 a new tax law was passed by Parliament. This law placed customs duties on imported paper, paint, and tea. All tea and most paper and paint were imported. The taxes were not at all high, but the colonists still objected to being taxed by Parliament.

The colonists opposed the new taxes just as they had opposed the stamp tax. They would not buy the taxed goods and quarrelled with government officials over the taxes. Parliament had made another mistake. All the new tax

The Virginia Assembly discusses the Stamp Act



laws were repealed, except for a very small duty on tea—less than the people in Britain had to pay. Members of Parliament thought the colonists would not object to this small tax.

The colonists believed that if they paid even a small tax they would be admitting that Parliament had a right to tax them. When tea came to America, colonial merchants would not buy it. At several ports it was placed in warehouses and left there. In some places it was destroyed. In Boston a whole shipload of tea was thrown into the harbor. This action became famous as the Boston Tea Party.

The colonists did not agree among themselves about opposing these new

laws. Many of them thought the laws should be obeyed. Members of Parliament and British officers did not agree, either. Many thought the British government had no right to tax the colonists. New ideas were appearing in the world, as new ideas had appeared many times before.

New ideas nearly always come into the world very much in this way. Some people accept them at once and others do not. After a time the people who accept the new ideas and those who do not will probably quarrel. If the new ideas are good, more and more people accept them as time passes. If they are not good, they will usually be forgotten after a while.

The Revolutionary War Brings Independence

The colonies still had no plans for working together. Each colony had its own government, but there was no government for the colonies as a whole. There seemed to be no way for the leaders in all the colonies to make plans together. Finally the Massachusetts Assembly sent letters to the assemblies of all the other colonies. The letters asked all the assemblies to send representatives to a meeting in Philadelphia.

The representatives met early in September, 1774, in a meeting called the Continental Congress. Among the representatives were Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Adams, George Washington, and Patrick Henry.

Samuel Adams was a leader in Massachusetts. He thought that the colonies should work together. George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Patrick Henry were great leaders in Virginia. Benjamin Franklin, the best-known leader in Pennsylvania, had been sent

to England when trouble first began. The colonists believed that he could help the King and Parliament to understand the colonies better.

After talking over all the troubles of the colonies, members of the Congress agreed upon plans for working together. They still hoped for a peaceful settlement of their many differences with the home country.

You will probably wish to learn the names of the thirteen colonies that joined to oppose the British government. They were Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Besides the thirteen, there were other British colonies in America. You know something of the history of most of them. They were those of Newfoundland, Quebec, Nova Scotia, four colonies made up of islands in the West

Indies, Bermuda, East Florida and West Florida. None of these colonies joined the thirteen in the quarrels with Britain.

The first fighting

If the Continental Congress had met earlier, it might have been able to suggest a way to settle the differences. Neither side really wished to be unfair, but the men on both sides were determined to keep what they believed to be their rights. The differences were too great for a peaceful settlement.

The first actual fighting began in Massachusetts. In October, 1774, Massachusetts had set up a new government in Cambridge. The British governor controlled only the city of Boston.

There were British soldiers in Boston. In April, 1775, their commander learned that the colonists were storing guns and ammunition in Concord. He decided to send soldiers from Boston to destroy these war supplies. They were also to capture John Hancock and Samuel Adams, leaders in opposing the British government. The colonists discovered what the commander was planning. They arranged to have Paul Revere and Charles Dawes waiting across the river from Boston with fast horses. As soon as the soldiers started, Revere and Dawes rode as fast as they could toward Concord, spreading the word. It was night. Farmers and villagers quickly dressed and shouldered their guns. Because they had agreed to be ready at a minute's notice, they were called "minutemen."

When the British troops reached Lexington, they found the group of minutemen awaiting them. No one knows which side fired the first shot, but there was a small battle. Then the

soldiers went on to Concord. They succeeded in taking the supplies but not in capturing Hancock and Adams. As they marched back to Boston, minutemen, hidden behind trees and bushes along the road, kept the troops under constant fire. The British lost many soldiers. War had begun.

Washington in command

In May the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. George Washington was there, and Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Adams, John Adams, John Hancock, and Benjamin Franklin, who had just returned from England. This Continental Congress was made up of representatives from all the thirteen colonies. They were men whom the colonists trusted. They had no way to force the colonists to carry out their plans or obey the laws they made. Their government worked very well, however. Most of the colonists were willing to let the Congress govern them.

The little armies fighting separately under their own officers could not win a war. There must be larger armies and a plan of action for each group. The Second Continental Congress decided to appoint a commander in chief for all the colonial forces. They chose George Washington, who had been an officer during the Seven Years' War. Members of the Congress believed that soldiers from all the colonies would be willing to serve under him.

Washington took command in June, 1775. The only large army was camped at Cambridge, near Boston, so Washington went there to take command. What an army greeted the general! Scarcely any of the men had uniforms. Most of them wore their everyday working clothes. A few had parts of



The Colonial army in camp near Boston

uniforms, perhaps a hat or a coat, left over from the war with the French. Many wore the deerskin coats and trousers of the frontier. Officers wore colored ribbons tied around their arms to show their rank. Most of the soldiers had brought their own rifles. These were of all kinds.

The soldiers had built huts of sod, boards, and stone. Some were living in tents. Soldiers who were shoemakers, tailors, and blacksmiths went to work. Most of the men had little money to buy shoes, clothes, or guns, but they traded other articles for them.

Washington soon had a more orderly camp. He drilled the men until they learned to work together and to obey orders. No Revolutionary army ever had enough uniforms for all the men, however, and food was always a serious problem. The men were often cold, badly dressed, hungry, and discouraged.

In the fall of 1775 Washington sent two armies northward to Canada. One army travelled by way of Lake Champlain to Montreal, captured the city, and then moved down the St. Lawrence toward Quebec. In the meantime the other army had gone by sea to Maine and then crossed Maine to Quebec. The two armies joined in an attack but could not take Quebec. In the early summer of 1776 the armies left Canada.

Washington had believed the French colonists along the St. Lawrence would join in fighting the British. He was wrong. The French colonists did not think Britain was a harsh ruler. They had been allowed to keep their own religion, law, and language, and almost all their own customs.

Even in the thirteen colonies a great many people were unwilling to fight against the British government. These people were called Loyalists because

How the Thirteen Colonies Became a New Nation

they remained loyal to Britain. They were even willing to fight against the colonists. In the early spring of 1776 a small army of Loyalists was defeated by colonial soldiers near Wilmington, North Carolina.

As the war went on, almost all of the Loyalists were forced to leave the thirteen colonies. A great many of them moved to Canada, as you know.

The Declaration of Independence

Many leaders, including Washington, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson, thought the colonies should fight for independence. They felt that this was the only way to be sure of the rights they demanded. Others thought this would not be necessary.

There were many arguments, but at last, July 2, 1776, the Congress voted for independence. Jefferson, with the help of Franklin and John Adams, wrote the paper stating why "these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States." Then, on July 4, 1776, this paper, called the Declaration of Independence, came before the Congress for a final vote.

If the members voted for independence and signed the Declaration, they would be taking a great step. Everybody realized how important the occa-

sion was. Citizens of Philadelphia were crowding the streets outside the State House. An old man was waiting in the tower to ring the bell if the Declaration was signed. It was late in the afternoon. Finally the signal came! The bell rang out defiantly! Soon all the bells of the city were ringing. The old bell in the State House has been known since then as the Liberty Bell.

The news spread quickly and was followed in every colony by the booming of cannon and the flaring of bonfires. Everywhere people talked excitedly of liberty and independence. This is the event that is celebrated every Fourth of July, for it was on that day that the United States of America declared their independence.

The Declaration of Independence said that the colonies "are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States." Notice that the Declaration does not say that the colonies have become an independent country. The word "state" is often used to mean country, and this is how it was used in the Declaration. The Declaration did not mean that the colonies had become one country. It meant that each of the thirteen colonies had become an independent country.

If the colonies had not declared their independence in the midst of a war, they might have remained thirteen independent countries. As it was, the people in all the states knew that they must work and plan together. They must have officials who could act for all of them. A committee was appointed to plan a government that would bind the states together. But it was almost two years before the plan was finally approved by the Congress and was accepted by all the states.



This plan of government was called the Articles of Confederation. Each state was still considered independent. There was a Congress in which all states were represented equally. That is, a small state was just as important as a large one. The Articles of Confederation made the United States a close league of independent countries. They acted together for some purposes, but they still did not form one country.

The war is won

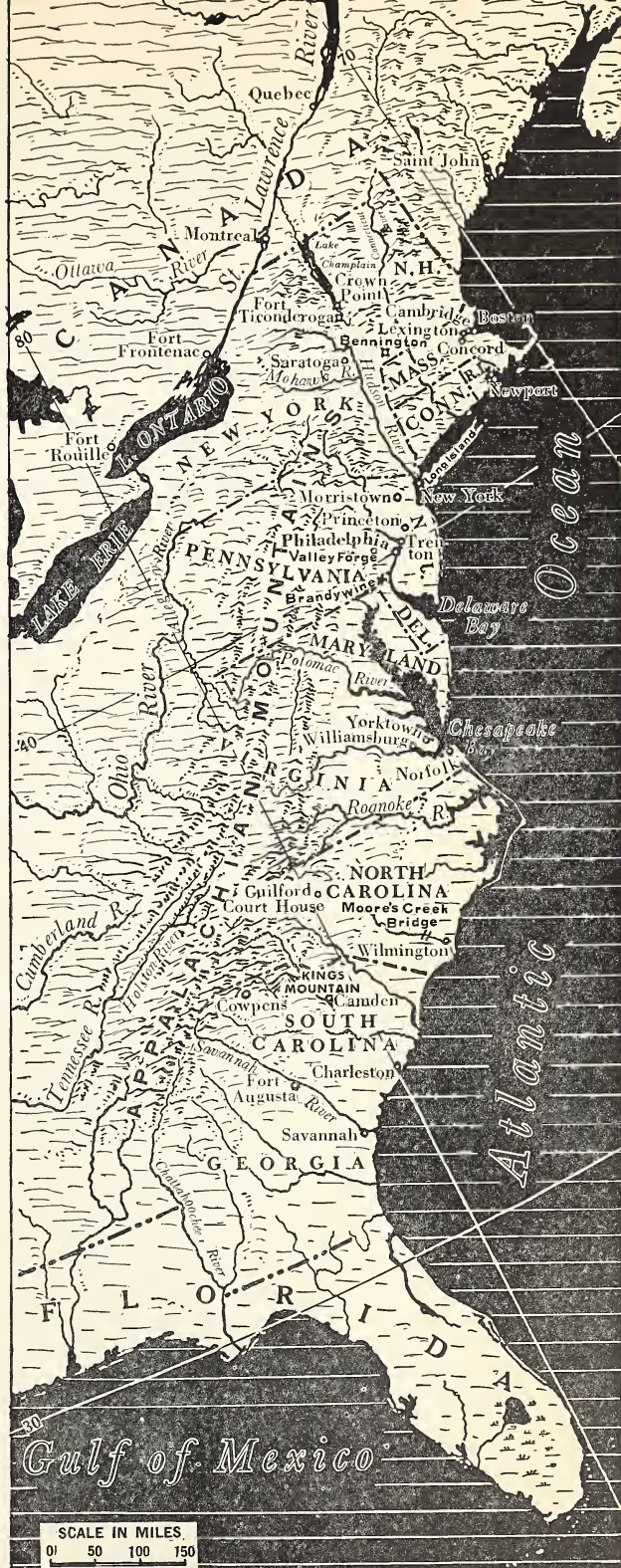
In the meantime the war was going on. The map on this page shows where it was fought. There was fighting in and around all the cities and towns named on the map.

In the summer of 1776 there were armies in New England and in the South, and Washington was in New York with his army. A large British fleet, commanded by Admiral Howe, sailed into the New York Harbor. It brought an army commanded by his brother, General Howe.

Howe soon drove the Americans back. Washington was not able to hold New York. He retreated across New Jersey to Pennsylvania. No bridges crossed the Delaware River. For many miles along the river Washington's men gathered up all boats and took them to the Pennsylvania side. There, for a time at least, Washington's army was safe.

Washington and his men won their first victory in December, 1776. On Christmas night they crossed the Delaware River at Trenton and defeated some of King George III's troops from Hanover. That winter many battles were fought in New Jersey.

In the meantime a British army was moving south from Canada under General Burgoyne. The army came by





The bitter winter at Valley Forge

way of Lake Champlain and captured Crown Point and Fort Ticonderoga. Burgoyne then crossed to the Hudson Valley. He had been ordered to meet a British army coming north from New York. If the plan had been successful, New England would have been cut off from the states to the west and south. It failed, however, and Burgoyne was forced to surrender.

In the summer of 1777 General Howe took an army southward by sea. His ships sailed up Chesapeake Bay and landed at the northern tip of the bay. Washington was waiting for them but was defeated. The British took Philadelphia and remained there during the winter of 1777 and 1778. Washington encamped his army at Valley Forge about twenty miles from the city.

Washington's men suffered terribly at Valley Forge during the winter. At times their only food was salted fish and potatoes. Their clothes were in rags. They had to build tiny log cabins for shelter against the bitter cold. Many were ill. Some became discouraged and left the army.

The most important event of that winter took place far away in France.

France and England had fought many wars in the past. Members of the Second Continental Congress thought the French government might be willing to help the Americans. They sent Benjamin Franklin to France to seek aid. The French agreed to send a fleet and soldiers. The fleet was important because the Americans had no navy. When General Howe learned that a French fleet was coming, he decided that he could not hold Philadelphia. He marched his men out of the city and went back to New York.

While these events were taking place, fighting was going on far to the west. The land between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River, which is shown on the map on page 84, was held by the British, with only a few soldiers. Some were at Detroit and some in the French towns of the Illinois country.

South of the Ohio there were a few settlers who had come over the mountains from the east. One of them, George Rogers Clark, went to Virginia for help. In the fall of 1777, with about two hundred men he attacked the forts in the Illinois country. One by one he surprised and captured them.

In the meantime, a British army was landed in the south. Charlestown was taken. Georgia and South Carolina were occupied with many small battles.

The decisive battle came in 1781. In August, Washington began an attack with the combined American and French forces. With the aid of the Marquis de La Fayette, he surrounded the British army under General Cornwallis in Yorktown, in Virginia. The French fleet blocked the way for either aid or escape. On October 19, Cornwallis surrendered. The United States had won their independence.

Two years later a treaty of peace was

signed by representatives of the British and American governments. The new nation, The United States of America, was to extend from the Great Lakes to Florida, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River.

During the war, the United States got its flag, the Stars and Stripes. There is a story, not authenticated, that the first flag was made by Betsy Ross. It had thirteen stars arranged in a circle, placed on a blue square. There were thirteen stripes, seven red and six white. Today the flag has forty-eight stars. A new star has been added for each new state.

The Victors Turn on the Loyalists

About one third of the people of the thirteen colonies were Loyalists in 1776. Many were officials of the British government, its army and its services. Many were merchants the success of whose business depended upon keeping their trade with Britain. Many were professional people—ministers, lawyers, teachers, and physicians.

The Loyalists were of two groups. A small group thought that colonists should obey Parliament without question. Most of the Loyalists wanted more self-government, but without separation from Britain. The Declaration of Independence forced these Loyalists to make a very hard choice.

New York was the stronghold of the Loyalists. More than twenty thousand from this state joined the British army. There were many Loyalists in Virginia, Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. There were fewer in New England and other states.

The success of the Revolution brought great distress to the Loyalists. Severe

laws were passed against them in every state. Their property was taken from them, and they lost their right to vote. They were forbidden to hold any office or to practise law. They were hooted and jeered in the streets. Few would buy from them or sell to them. Those who had aided the British were severely punished.

Thousands of Loyalists made their way to New York, which was held by the British fleet. Ships of the line took them, with their few possessions, to other colonies or to Britain. Between 1775 and 1787 sixty thousand Loyalists left the United States.

As you know, the majority of the Loyalists came to Canada. Many settled in Nova Scotia. Many more founded Saint John and the colony of New Brunswick. Large numbers reached Quebec and settled around Sherbrooke. Many went on up the St. Lawrence to Upper Canada. Others crossed the Niagara to become the pioneers of the Niagara Peninsula.

In the peace treaty signed by the British and American governments, the United States agreed to recommend that the Loyalists be allowed to recover their property. Congress did so recommend, but none of the states took action. To the new rulers of the states, the Loyalists were traitors, and as such did not deserve any consideration. Of course, that would likely have been the fate of revolutionists if they

had been beaten. They would have lost many of their rights also.

The British Parliament helped the Loyalists to establish new homes. Free lands were given them in Canada. Money was provided for seed and live stock. Six million pounds was spent to help them, but it was a small sum in proportion to the heavy losses and the bitter hardships that were suffered by the Loyalists.

“To Form a More Perfect Union” of the States

You have learned how the colonies became states and set up a government for themselves during the War for Independence. You know that the rules for that government were called the Articles of Confederation. But under the Articles of Confederation the states were not united closely enough to make them really one country. The central government needed more power if the states were to work together.

Money was one of the greatest difficulties. Only the states could collect taxes. Part of the money was to be given to the central government, but the states gave very small amounts. The Congress had no way to force the states to raise more money, and the country fell deeper and deeper into debt. Besides this, the states quarrelled over trade and taxes, and the Articles of Confederation did not permit the Congress to make laws that would end the quarrels.

A constitution is written

In February, 1787, the Congress invited each state to send representatives to Philadelphia. The representatives arrived in May and worked throughout the summer. They met in Independence

Hall, where the Continental Congress had met and the Declaration of Independence had been signed. George Washington was there. All the other leaders respected him so much that they made him president of the meetings. James Madison was another Virginia delegate. He kept a record of all that was said and done at the meetings. Benjamin Franklin, eighty-one years old, was present. He was not able to make long speeches, but he had written some papers, which were read for him. He made many helpful suggestions, especially when the other representatives could not agree.

The representatives were called together to improve the Articles of Confederation. They soon saw that this was not enough. If the country was to become strong, it needed an entirely new kind of government. The representatives would have to write a plan stating the rules or laws of the new government. Such a plan is called a *constitution*. The meeting came to be called the Constitutional Convention.

The Constitution itself says that it was written “in order to form a more perfect union.” The leaders from the different states had different ideas about

what makes a good government. All agreed that the people from each state should choose, or *elect*, men to represent them. These men would be the Congress of the United States and would make the laws for the country. The members disagreed on the number of representatives each state could have. There were two different ideas.

According to one idea, each representative should stand for a certain number of people. For example, if one representative stood for 30,000 people, a state with 90,000 people would have three representatives. Large states like New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia had more people than small states like Delaware and Rhode Island. These states would have many more representatives, then, than the smaller ones. According to the other idea, all states should have the same number of representatives. Then the states would all be equal, whether large or small.

The question was important because each representative would have one vote. The state with the most representatives would have the most votes and therefore the most power. The members from the small states thought all states should be equal. They were afraid that the representatives of the large states would make laws favoring their own states. The members from the large states thought it was not fair for a state with only a few people to have just as many votes as a state with many people. Finally after about two weeks of discussion, an agreement was reached.

It was decided that the Congress should be made up of two groups, called "houses." These two still exist in the government. In one group, called the House of Representatives, the number

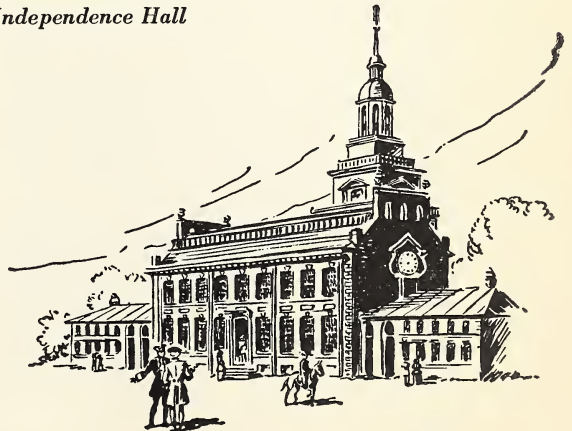
of representatives, also called congressmen, from each state depends on the population. The greater the population of a state, the more representatives it has. This satisfied the large states.

In the other group, called the Senate, each state has two representatives, called senators. All states are equal in the Senate. This satisfied the small states. No law can be passed unless it has a *majority* of the votes in both houses. A majority means more than half.

All the members of the convention felt that there should be one person to head the government. They decided that the head of the government should be elected for a term of four years, and that he should be called the President. The makers of the Constitution also planned a Supreme Court and other courts. These courts were to decide whether people had broken the laws of the country. The Constitution gave the new government power to collect taxes from the people so that it would have the money it needed.

The Constitution of the United States defines the powers of the national, or federal, government. The chief powers are (1) to declare war, make peace, and establish and control the armed services;

Independence Hall





Signing the Constitution

(2) to control all relations and trade with other nations; (3) to regulate trade which passes from one state to another; this includes means of trade like railways and postal services; (4) to coin all money, tax the people directly and borrow money if necessary; (5) to set up courts to make decisions about federal laws and disputes between states; (6) to govern the capital city, territories not yet states, and all Indian affairs.

Everything else not mentioned in the Constitution as a power of the federal government was left to the states. This is exactly opposite to our Canadian arrangement. Our British North America Act gives the provinces certain powers. Everything else is left to our federal government.

Congress makes law. The President sees that the nation's business is done according to law. Because it is his duty to get things done, the President is called the Chief Executive. He is in charge of the country, and to help

him he chooses a Cabinet of assistant executives usually called Secretaries. The Secretary of State directs relations with other nations. The Secretary of the Treasury must see that money is raised by taxes or by borrowing to pay for the work Congress has decided to do.

Canadian cabinet ministers must be members of Parliament. Members of the President's cabinet are not members of Congress. They are directly responsible to the President. Their appointment, however, must be approved by the Senate.

Congress makes laws. The President may *veto* a law by refusing to sign it. Congress may require the President to sign, by passing the law again through both houses by a two-thirds majority in each house.

The Constitution had to be approved by the people of nine states before it became law. In September, 1787, it was sent to the states. All that winter and the next spring discussions and arguments went on. Almost everyone found something that he did not agree with in the Constitution. At last, however, in June of the year 1788 the ninth state agreed to accept the Constitution, and the new government began to work. The remaining four states accepted the Constitution later.

More people had objected to the Constitution for one reason than for any other. It did not state clearly enough what rights the people should have. They wanted something to guarantee them what they had called the "rights of Englishmen" when they were

colonists. The English Parliament passed a Bill of Rights in 1689, after the "Glorious Revolution" in England.

A statement of rights was added to the Constitution of the United States in 1791. The Constitution provides for such changes, called *amendments*. An amendment is usually proposed by Congress. It must then be approved by the legislature of at least three-quarters of the states to become law.

The first ten amendments to the Constitution are called the American Bill of Rights. Many of the rights are taken word for word from the English Bill of Rights. These amendments state that all citizens shall have freedom of religion and worship. They shall be free to meet in peaceful groups and work to change any laws they believe are wrong. They may speak and write their opinions freely and may criticize the government. If charged with a crime, they must be tried by a jury in a court of law. Private homes may not be entered or searched by law officers except for certain good reasons. By passing such a bill Congress ensured the freedom of each citizen.

Washington is President

After the Constitutional Convention, George Washington had returned to his home at Mount Vernon in Virginia. The next year, 1788, he was elected to be the first President of the United States. In April, 1789, he took office at New York, then the capital.

Washington chose two famous and capable men among the members of his cabinet. Alexander Hamilton was his Secretary of the Treasury and Thomas Jefferson his Secretary of State.

At the end of Washington's four years as president, he was elected president for a second term. After completing the two terms, he returned to Mount Vernon.

On December 14, 1799, Washington, the Father of His Country, died at the age of sixty-seven. He was buried in a simple tomb at Mount Vernon. At his funeral Henry Lee said of him, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." His tomb and his home are the most cherished historic sites of the United States.

The History Workshop

By now you know how to go on with your time chart and the history of your community. You will now find more items of Canadian history as you review this period, 1763 to 1800. Fit the events of world history listed on the next page into both Canadian and United States history. What dates of this period should we remember?

Many of you will have something to add to your community history. Those of you who live in the west may have to wait for a later period of history before the story of your community begins.

The history of the world

The twenty items on the next page may be used as was suggested earlier. They may also be used to make a history quiz. Try these: Where was Alexander Mackenzie when the Paris mob stormed the Bastille? Where was George Washington? What happened to Captain Cook that year? Was Washington the president when Napoleon was emperor? What was happening in Paris while Governor Simcoe was opening the legislature at Newark? Was Australia settled when Washington became president?

How the Thirteen Colonies Became a New Nation

- 1764—Watt invents a steam engine.
- 1768—Cook reaches Australia.
- 1769—Arkwright and Hargreaves make machines for factories.
- 1772—Partition of Poland begins.
- 1778—La Fayette goes to America.
- 1779—Spain makes war on Britain.
- 1788—First settlement in Australia.
- 1789—The Bastille falls, July 14.
- 1792—The Reign of Terror in France.
- 1796—Napoleon invades Italy.
- 1798—Battle of the Nile.
- 1801—United Kingdom is formed.
- 1804—Napoleon becomes emperor.
- 1805—Nelson wins at Trafalgar.
- 1805—Napoleon wins at Austerlitz.
- 1806—Napoleon wins at Jena.
- 1807—Britain abolishes slavery.
- 1812—The Retreat from Moscow.
- 1815—Wellington wins at Waterloo.

Who is talking?

The following is an imaginary conversation between three men who lived in colonial days. The speakers are a colonist, an officer of the British government, and an Indian. You are to tell who each speaker is. The time is a little before the War for Independence.

First speaker. But I tell you, you can't go over the mountains to live, no matter how green the grass may be and how pleasant the streams that flow westward.

Second speaker. And I tell you I will go over the mountains. Here I have only a small, stony farm. I work hard from morning to night, and I can scarcely make a living.

First speaker. It is not safe to go where you wish to go. Some day there will be farms in that land, but it is not time. We must make it safe for you first.

Second speaker. I will make it safe for myself, I and my neighbors. We do not need you to make it safe for us.

Third speaker. What of me? It is *my* land. You say there will be farms there. Where am I to go?

Second speaker. Your land! You do not own a foot of land!

Third speaker. I do not know what you mean by "owning" land. The old men cannot remember a time when my people did not hunt on that land.

Second speaker. Your people indeed! There are two hundred of them, and the land they claim would feed thousands.

Third speaker. It is our hunting ground. How shall we live if you drive us out?

Second speaker. You can farm as we do.

Third speaker. It is not the way of my people.

First speaker. There is right in what he says. His people do not know the meaning of farming as we know it. There is right in what you say, too, but you can't go now. You'll go over there, thousands of you, to this man's land. Then he and his friends will burn your cabins. You'll come begging us for help, and we can't give it to you.

Second speaker. We'll not be begging help of you. That time is past. I have ten children to raise. They must have food. My six boys will want farms. Where will they find them?

Third speaker. I, too, have children. What will they eat if you cut down the trees and plow up the land?

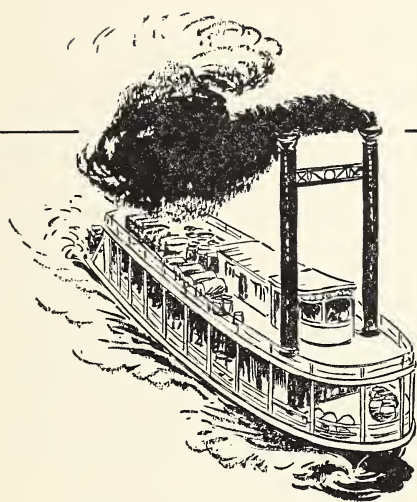
Second speaker. You don't use the land. You waste it. We know how to make good use of it, and we mean to have it.

First speaker. I'm afraid you will have it, but it is my duty to try to stop you.

The first states

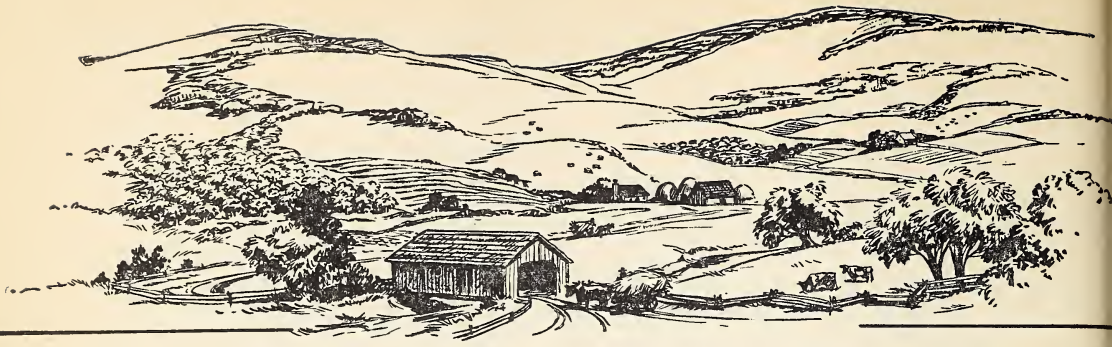
Twenty states are listed below. Which of them are the states that declared their independence in 1776?

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. New Jersey | 11. Louisiana |
| 2. Ohio | 12. Connecticut |
| 3. Georgia | 13. Rhode Island |
| 4. New Hampshire | 14. Pennsylvania |
| 5. Vermont | 15. Texas |
| 6. South Carolina | 16. Delaware |
| 7. Massachusetts | 17. Virginia |
| 8. Maine | 18. Maryland |
| 9. California | 19. North Carolina |
| 10. New York | 20. Florida |



GREAT CHANGES

Come to the Young Nation



Great Changes Come to the Young Nation

A Rising Nation

“A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry, . . . advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye . . .”

Thomas Jefferson spoke those words in the year 1801. He had been elected the third president of the United States. The quotation is taken from his inaugural address, the speech he made when he took office as president. As you read on, you will learn what he meant and how the country became greater than even Jefferson dreamed.

No doubt Jefferson looked around him with pride as he spoke, for he was the first president to take the office in

Washington, the new capital city. At first New York had been the capital, and then Philadelphia. While Washington was the president, the Congress decided that the nation should have a new capital city, which should not be in any state. The Congress voted that it should be somewhere in the South and asked Washington to choose the exact place. Washington selected a spot on the banks of the Potomac River near Mount Vernon, his own beautiful home. The area was then named the District of Columbia.

Soon workmen were clearing the wooded banks of the river in order to build the new city. The first two government buildings to be built were the





Capitol and a home for the president. The first Capitol was a small frame building. The home for the president was built one mile northwest of it, at the end of a dirt street.

The new capital city was not ready for use while Washington was president. The government was not moved there until 1800. The house for the president was not finished in time for Jefferson to live in it.

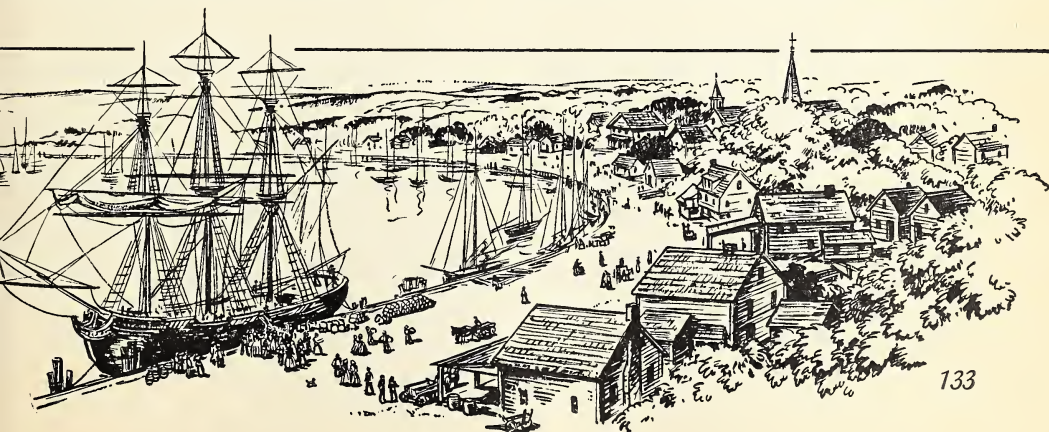
When Jefferson spoke of a "rising nation," he was not just telling what he hoped would happen in the future. He had already seen the nation rise greatly in importance and in its position among the nations of the world.

When Washington became president in 1789, the country was very new and its government had not been tested. There were thirteen states, all of them along the Atlantic coast. The population was less than four million.

Now, only twelve years later, the government was working well. Three new states had been added. Two of them were west of the mountains, where there had been only a few stockaded wilderness settlements in 1789. The population of the United States was a third larger in 1801 than it had been twelve years before.

When Jefferson became president, the country had reached the Mississippi River. He could remember when the region between the crest of the Appalachians and the Mississippi River had belonged to France. Now his country stretched away to this great river. It seemed a very wide land indeed.

When Jefferson said the land was "fruitful," he meant that it was productive. Most of it had been farmed only a few years. Even with poor tools the farmers grew fine crops. The very size of the new country helped make it a



fruitful land. No country of western Europe stretched so far north and south and east and west. Its many different regions gave it a great variety of crops. By "rich productions of their industry" Jefferson did not mean factory products only, but any goods Americans produced by their work.

From earliest colonial days there had been many American traders. You have read about their ships trading in the West Indies, in England, and in Africa. Those earlier Americans travelled only on the Atlantic Ocean. But Jefferson spoke of later Americans as "traversing," or travelling over, *all* the seas. No doubt he was thinking with pride of some of the newer adventures of American ships.



Ship "Columbia" on the China Coast

Perhaps he was thinking of the new trade with China, begun just after the War for Independence. In 1784 the American trading ship *Empress of China* sailed away from New York to the southeast. It crossed the South Atlantic and rounded the Cape of Good Hope. On and on the ship sailed, across the Indian Ocean, around southeastern Asia, and northward to China. The *Empress of China* was the first American ship to reach the coast of China, but others soon followed. From China the ships brought back cargoes of tea and silk and

fine dishes. It was hard, however, to find any American products that were worth enough to pay for these goods.

In 1787 Captain Robert Gray sailed from Boston on an important trading voyage. Another ship and captain were with him, but it is Gray who is remembered. The ships sailed to the south, as had the *Empress of China*. But, instead of sailing southeast around Africa, these ships turned southwest and sailed around South America.

When they reached the Pacific, the ships turned north. At last they came to the shores of what is now the northwestern part of the United States. There Gray and his companions traded with the Indians for furs. To their manufactured goods from New England, the traders now added a cargo of thick, soft furs. Then Gray sailed across the Pacific to China in his ship, *Columbia*. From China he sailed back to Boston by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The *Columbia* was the first ship to carry the United States flag around the world.

As soon as the *Columbia* could be made ready for another voyage, Captain Gray sailed away again for the Pacific coast. Other captains had sailed along this coast. From the Indians they had heard tales of a wide river, but they could not find it. Then on a spring day in the year 1792 Gray sailed his ship across a dangerous sand bar and into the mouth of one of America's finest rivers. He named it the Columbia, for his ship. Thus he gave his country a claim to all the land now in Northwestern United States.

Perhaps Jefferson thought of Gray when he spoke of ships on all the seas. No doubt he thought Gray's greatest deed was the finding of good products for the China trade. Jefferson could not have known that the claim Gray

made would mean more to the country than all the trade with China.

Jefferson knew that he could not tell what would happen in the future. You will remember that he said the nation was advancing "to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye." On that fourth of March in 1801 he spoke of a "wide land." He did not dream that only two years later its area would be doubled. He knew that men in England had invented machines to spin thread and to weave textiles. He knew that a man in America had made a machine to take the seeds out of cotton. He could not foresee that, because of these machines, settlers would crowd into the South and set up a way of living different from any other.

In Scotland, Watt had invented a steam engine, but it did not work very well. Jefferson could not foresee that within a few years steam engines would drive boats and locomotives. He could not know that the steamboats and locomotives would carry settlers by the thousand to new regions in America.

A few years before the War for Independence a group of Spanish priests and soldiers travelled northward from Mexico. They stayed near the coast of

a land they called California. The priests founded missions, where they could teach the Indians. The soldiers were more interested in building forts, for Russian fur traders were working southward along that coast. A little later Spanish settlers came.

The Spaniards on the Pacific coast were far away from the United States, and Jefferson probably thought little about them. He could not dream that their story and the story of the French in Louisiana and the story of the English settlers on the Atlantic coast would flow together, like rivers meeting, and would all become part of the history of the United States.

Yes, Jefferson believed in the United States, but even he did not dream how great it was to become. If he could have turned to the next two pages of this book, as you are about to do, he would have been amazed. There on a map you will see part of the story of how the United States grew. As you read on, you will see the country spread all the way to the Pacific. You will follow streams of settlers as they fill the land with farms and cities.

Use the map often as you read. It will help you to understand the story.

The First Pioneers Move into the Wilderness

When Jefferson became president, there were already many settlers in the part of the country then called the West. This was the land between the Appalachians and the Mississippi. It included what is now called the central South and part of the Middle West. To learn how settlers came here, we must go back a little in our story.

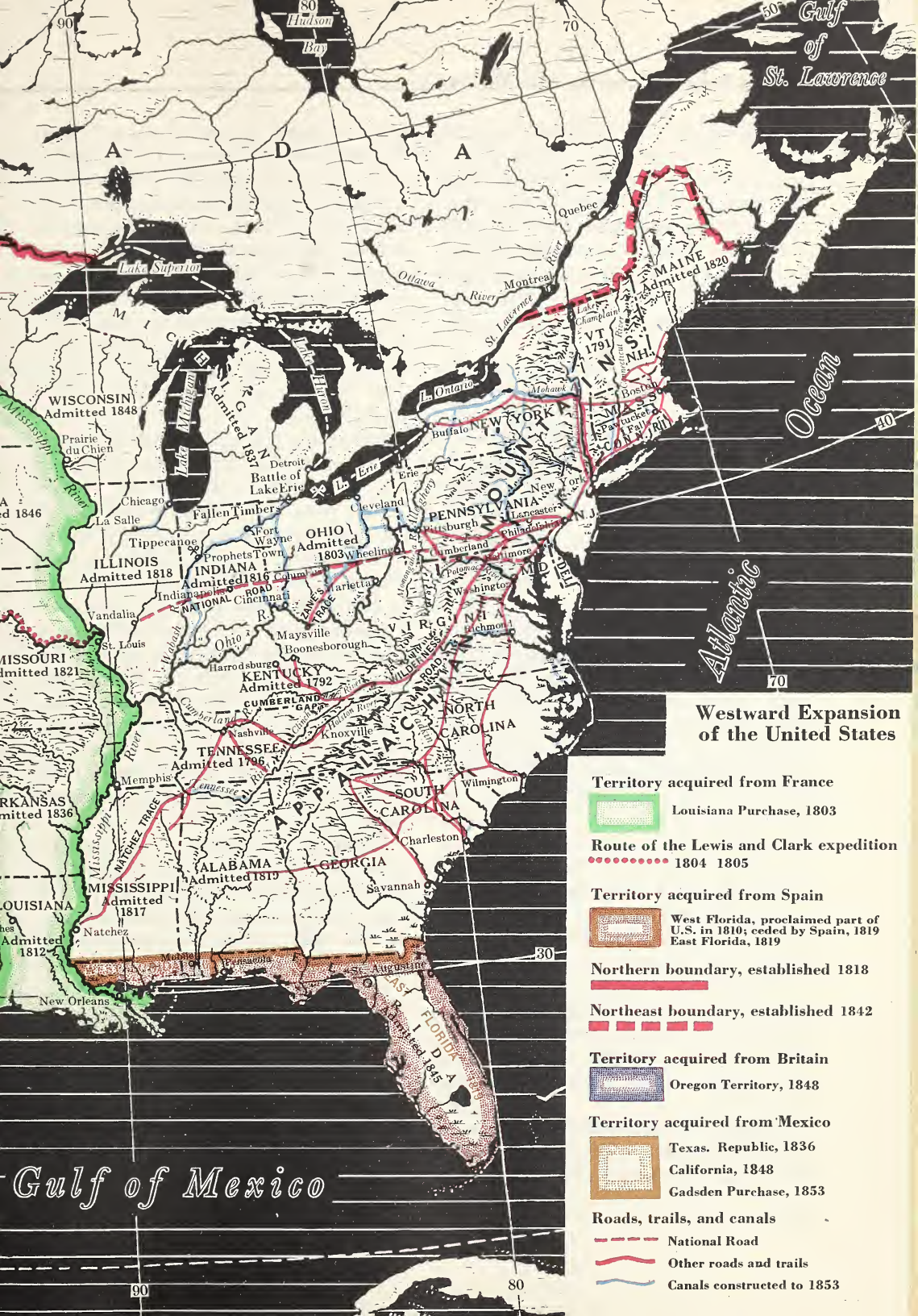
Turn back to the map on page 84. The map will remind you of how far

settlement extended in 1760, when the British and French were at war. The story of western settlement begins in the years between this war and the War for Independence.

Roads to the West

Travelling westward to the land beyond the mountains was not as easy as you might think from looking at the map. Imagine yourself a pioneer of





Westward Expansion of the United States

Territory acquired from France

Louisiana Purchase, 1803

Route of the Lewis and Clark expedition

1804-1805

Territory acquired from Spain

West Florida, proclaimed part of U.S. in 1810; ceded by Spain, 1819
East Florida, 1819

Northern boundary, established 1818

Northeast boundary, established 1842

Territory acquired from Britain

Oregon Territory, 1848

Territory acquired from Mexico

Texas Republic, 1836
California, 1848
Gadsden Purchase, 1853

Roads, trails, and canals

National Road
Other roads and trails
Canals constructed to 1853

about the year 1770. You wish to move beyond the mountains. The Appalachians are not high, but they are steep and rugged. They stand, ridge after ridge, all the way from New England to Georgia. Great forests cover them. You cannot go up and down over those endless ridges. Somewhere you must find a break that will let you through.



Now look at the map on pages 136-137. In New York you see the Mohawk Valley stretching westward. It is a strip of lowland that lies between groups of mountains. So far as the land was concerned, this was an easy way to the West. The Iroquois Indians were the difficulty. They held the land in western New York and had no wish to give it up. They were strong enough to keep settlers out for a time. But during the War for Independence the Iroquois were defeated. Settlers then began to move into western New York.

Now look far to the south, in Georgia. It looks as if one could easily walk around the ends of the mountain ranges. But here, too, powerful Indian tribes were able to keep settlers from travelling to the West.

No other routes to the West were as easy as these, but others were possible. Braddock's Road ran north and west

from Virginia. Forbes Road ran from Philadelphia west across Pennsylvania. They led to the forks of the Ohio, where a settlement called Pittsburgh grew up. These roads wound along the narrow valleys and crossed the ridges at the easiest places. The road makers had found routes that were not too hard and had cut down trees along the way. Perhaps "trails" would be a better word than "roads" for routes such as these. The pioneers themselves often called them "traces."

Far to the south, in North Carolina, the Yadkin River flows eastward out of the mountains. Before the Seven Years' War, some pioneers had moved into the upper valley of the Yadkin. Among them was a family named Boone. When the Boones moved here in 1750, their son Daniel was sixteen.

Daniel's parents were real pioneers. The Boones had settled at first on the frontier in Pennsylvania. When they moved south to the Yadkin, the valley was still wild frontier country. Men who lived on the Yadkin in those days did a little farming, but most of them were really hunters. Young Daniel Boone became a great hunter.

From the Yadkin the traveller could cross the mountains. He could follow the valley of the Yadkin into the mountains. Then he could go through a pass to the valley of the Watauga River, which flows toward the west. In the Appalachians, passes that cut through the ridges are called "gaps."

As a young man Daniel Boone met John Findley, a hunter. Findley told him about a fine hunting ground still farther west in a beautiful forested land called Kentucky. The route to Kentucky followed the Watauga to the Holston River and then crossed other tributaries

of the Tennessee River. Through the last ridge the route followed a pass named Cumberland Gap.

In the days before the Seven Years' War a trader now and then had passed through Cumberland Gap, leading his string of pack horses. Hunters, too, followed the trails west. They went deep into the forests for a whole season, sometimes for a year or two. These western lands were fine hunting grounds, with bear, deer, buffalo, elk, and fox. The game provided food for the hunters, also valuable skins and furs. Since the men were gone from home for so long a time, they were called "long hunters."

In 1769 Boone, Findley, and four others set out for the Kentucky forests. By this time there were already a few settlers in the Watauga Valley. The hunters went by way of the settlements and then through Cumberland Gap. Boone spent two years hunting and exploring. This was the first of his many trips into Kentucky. Daniel Boone no doubt knew the Kentucky wilderness better than any other white man. He thought there had never been finer country for a hunter.

From the time Boone first saw Kentucky he hoped to settle there some day. In 1773 he set out from the Yadkin with his wife, his eight children, and five other families. West of the Watauga settlements they were joined by some families from Virginia. When the settlers reached the outermost edge of the frontier, some of the men rode away to get supplies from settlements on the Clinch River. They were attacked by Indians, and seven of the white men were killed. One of these was Boone's son, a boy of seventeen. Boone still wanted to go on, but the other people would not go. They turned back, so

Daniel Boone did not, after all, found the first settlement in Kentucky.

In 1774 James Harrod led thirty men to Kentucky. They began to build cabins at a place later named Harrodsburg. You can find it on the map on pages 136-137.

In the meantime a company was formed, headed by Richard Henderson. From the Shawnee Indians the company bought a large area in Kentucky. In 1775 Henderson hired Boone to lay out a road to Kentucky and to build a fort. Boone took with him thirty expert woodsmen. Where the forest was open enough for wagons to pass through, they blazed the trees to show the way. That is, they chopped off a piece of bark so that the lighter-colored wood showed



plainly. When necessary, they cleared away trees and thicket. You will find Boone's road on the map on pages 136-137. It is called the Wilderness Road.

For the fort, Boone chose a spot with fertile soil and a fine spring to supply drinking water. There were also springs of salty water near by. Salt was sometimes one of the hardest things for pioneers to get. The forest was filled with game.

Boone and his men started to build cabins. Meanwhile, Henderson and fifty settlers were following Boone's trail.

They had with them pack horses and big herds of cattle. Their wagons were loaded with provisions, household goods, and ammunition.

When the newcomers reached Boonesborough, the new settlement, Boone's men gave them a feast of buffalo meat. Then everyone helped with the building. The ground was cleared, trees were cut down, and the logs were prepared for use. Storehouses for ammunition and provisions were built. Log cabins were set up in a square. Around the buildings a stockade was built for protection. At each corner of the square formed by the stockade was a blockhouse. Blockhouses were two-story buildings with loopholes for guns. They would be useful in defending the fort.

For many years the Wilderness Road was one of the main highways to the

land west of the mountains. Boonesborough was founded just at the beginning of the War for Independence. Even during the war a few settlers moved to Kentucky.

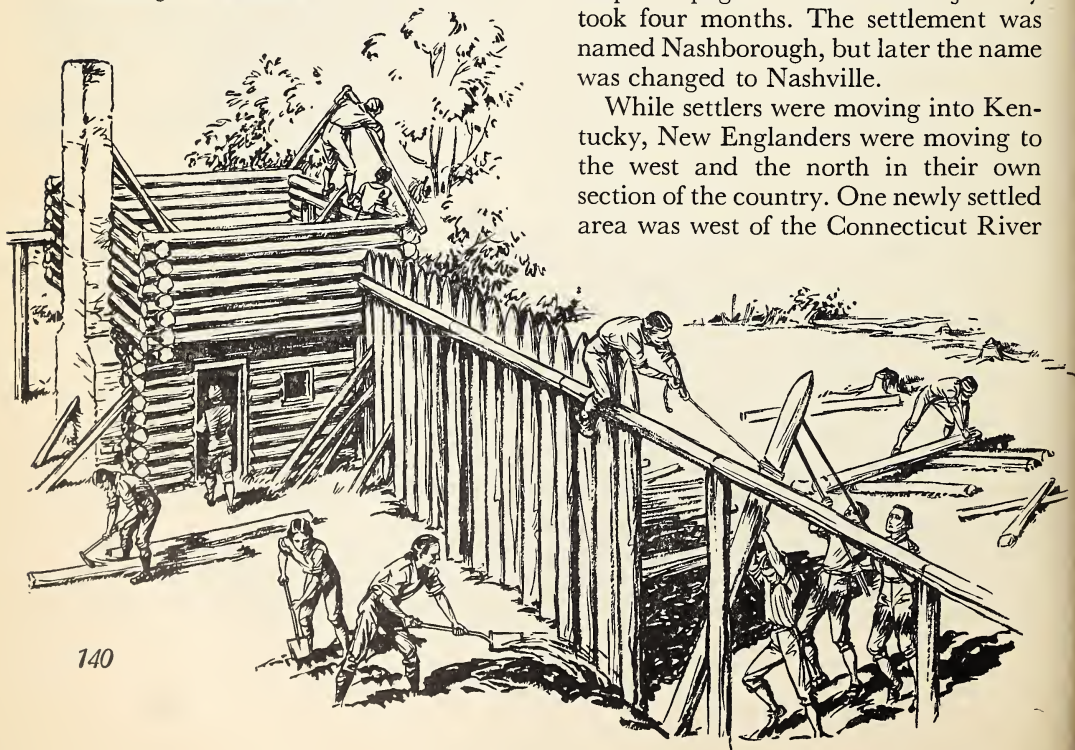
Settlers move into Tennessee

While Boonesborough was getting its start, other settlements were begun in Kentucky and Tennessee. Four years after Boone had marked out the Wilderness Road, Richard Henderson again got together a group of settlers to travel west. This group was to settle on the Cumberland River.

The settlers left their homes in western North Carolina. They passed through Cumberland Gap and followed Boone's road for a time. Then they branched off to the southwest and made their own trail. They crossed the frozen Cumberland River to settle on the southern bank. You can follow this route on the map on pages 136–137. The journey took four months. The settlement was named Nashborough, but later the name was changed to Nashville.

While settlers were moving into Kentucky, New Englanders were moving to the west and the north in their own section of the country. One newly settled area was west of the Connecticut River

Building the stockade



and north of Massachusetts. Most of the settlers here had come from Connecticut. They wanted to form a new state of their own. In 1791 the Congress of the United States allowed this area to become a state, with the name Vermont. Thus Vermont was the first new state and added the fourteenth star to the thirteen stars on the first flag.

In 1792 Kentucky became a state, the first one west of the mountains. There was now a fairly large settled area, from Boonesborough and Harrodsburg northward to the Ohio River.

The sixteenth state was Tennessee, admitted in 1796. At this time most of the people still lived on the upper tributaries of the Tennessee River or in the settled area around Nashville.

The story of roads and rivers

Can you imagine a time when there were no trains or automobiles and not even any real roads? The first travellers to the West followed the Indian trails. These were simply paths worn by the moccasined feet of Indian warriors and hunters. They were very narrow, for the Indians travelled on foot.

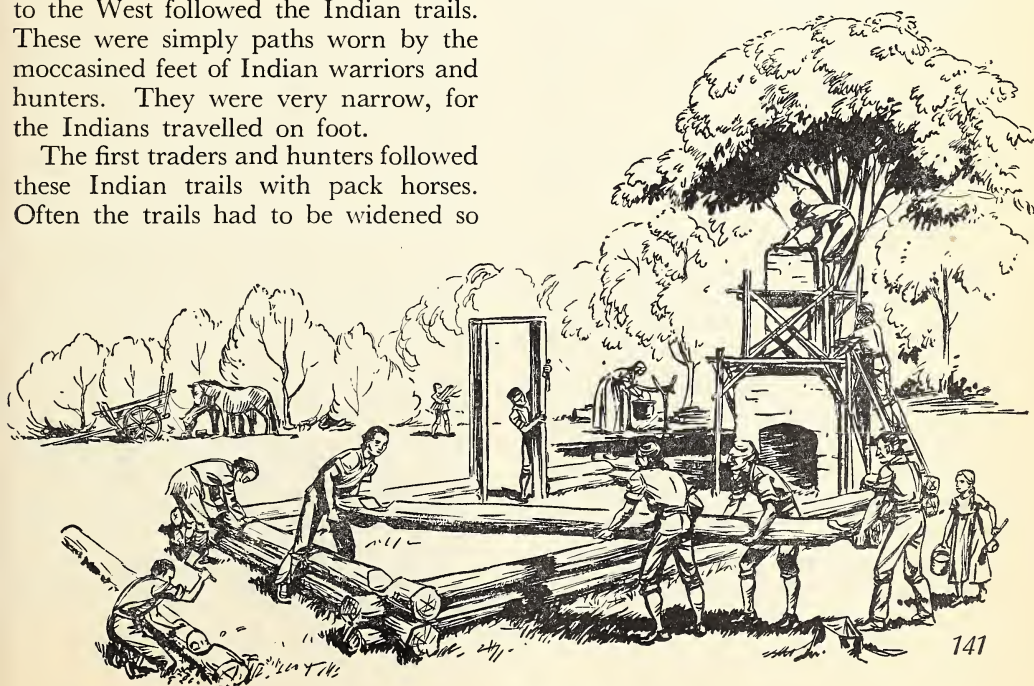
The first traders and hunters followed these Indian trails with pack horses. Often the trails had to be widened so

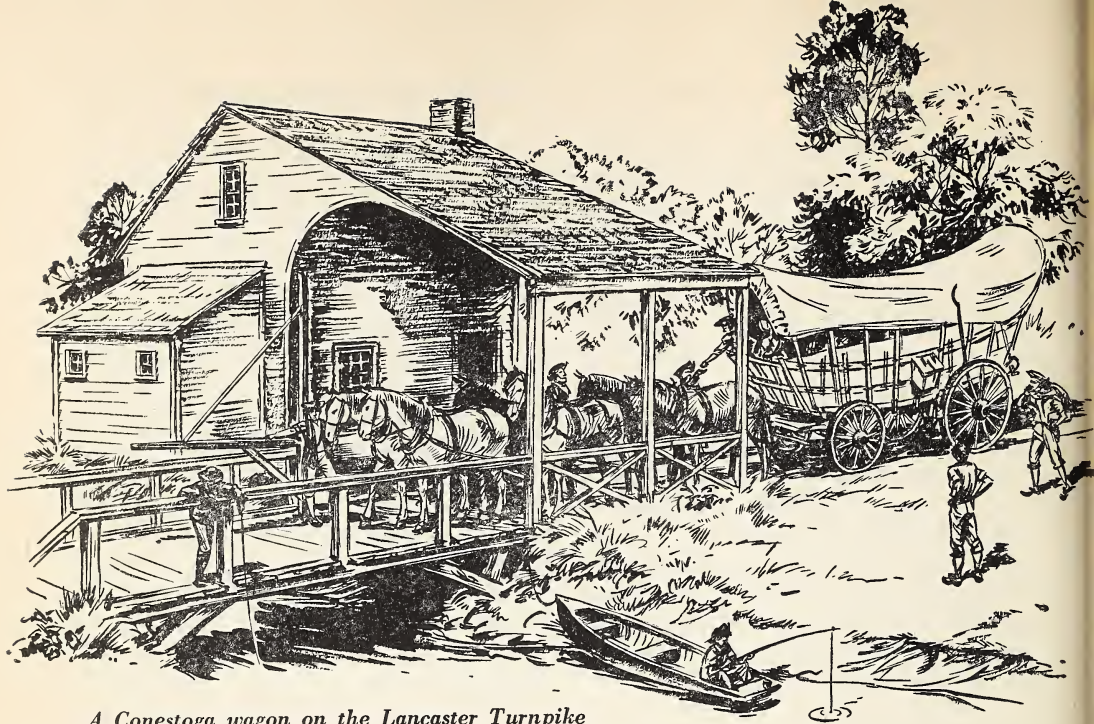
that the packs could pass between the trees. When Boone laid out the Wilderness Road, he and his men cleared a space wide enough for wagons. The road was not smoothed and there were no bridges over the streams.

Pioneers had to get themselves and their possessions over these roads as best they could. A few of the poorest people took no animals. They planned to start life in their new home with just the things they could carry on their own backs. A rifle, an axe, and a kettle might be their most important possessions. Others travelled with pack horses that carried bedding, cooking utensils, and a few tools. The people usually walked, because they used all their horses for carrying goods.

Some pioneers had two-wheeled carts, pulled by horses or oxen. Others had light wagons with blankets spread over

Building a blockhouse





A Conestoga wagon on the Lancaster Turnpike

their household goods. The most fortunate of all were those who had strong Conestoga wagons. Conestoga wagons were invented in colonial days by Pennsylvania Germans. They got their name from the Conestoga Valley in southeastern Pennsylvania, where they were first made. They were probably the best wagons ever made to carry heavy loads over rough trails.

The wheels were large and wide, with iron tires. The wide tires helped to keep the wagons from sinking in the soft roads. The bodies of the wagons were usually painted blue. They had deep sides and curved upward at each end. The curve kept the load from sliding out when the wagon went up and down the steep slopes. There was a cover of strong white cloth stretched over a wooden framework.

The first good road was finished in 1794. It was sixty-two miles long and

ran from Philadelphia to Lancaster in Pennsylvania. It was called the Lancaster Turnpike.

Perhaps you wonder how this road got such a strange name. The road was not built by the state or the United States. It was built by a company. The men who made up the company furnished the money to build the road. They expected to get their money back and make a profit by charging the people who used the road. Every few miles a pole was placed across the road. The pole could be swung back like a gate. When a wagon came to a pole, the driver had to pay a small sum of money. Then the pole was swung out of the way so that he could go through. The poles were called pikes, and so the road itself was called a turnpike road, or just a turnpike.

The turnpike was of crushed stones covered with gravel, and the surface

was curved so that water would drain off. People soon realized that their wagons could carry heavier loads on the turnpike than on a muddy dirt road. Stagecoaches could travel faster.

The Lancaster Turnpike was such a success that soon many more turnpikes were built. They connected the eastern cities and stretched out toward the frontier. Along them lumbered great Conestoga wagons heavily loaded with freight. Teams of four or six horses dashed along the road with stagecoaches rocking behind them. Cattle and hogs were driven from the farms to the towns on the road and sold there.

Along the roads, too, came many travellers on horseback. Farmers rode to town with their wives sitting behind them on the horses. Preachers rode from church to church. A man with business in another town might take the stagecoach, but he was more likely to ride his own horse.

Then there were always "movers" going west. Even between the eastern coastal cities might be seen people who were moving to the West. From Maine to Georgia they travelled toward the few roads that would lead them through and beyond the mountains.

A great many of the travellers going to the West gathered at Pittsburgh. Those who came from the northern and middle states usually followed Forbes Road. Those who came from the southern states followed Braddock's Road across the mountains. You saw these roads on the map on pages 136-137.

Pittsburgh was a busy place in those days. There the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers meet to form the great Ohio, which goes on and on to the West. At Pittsburgh the travellers bought or built boats. The most popular kind was

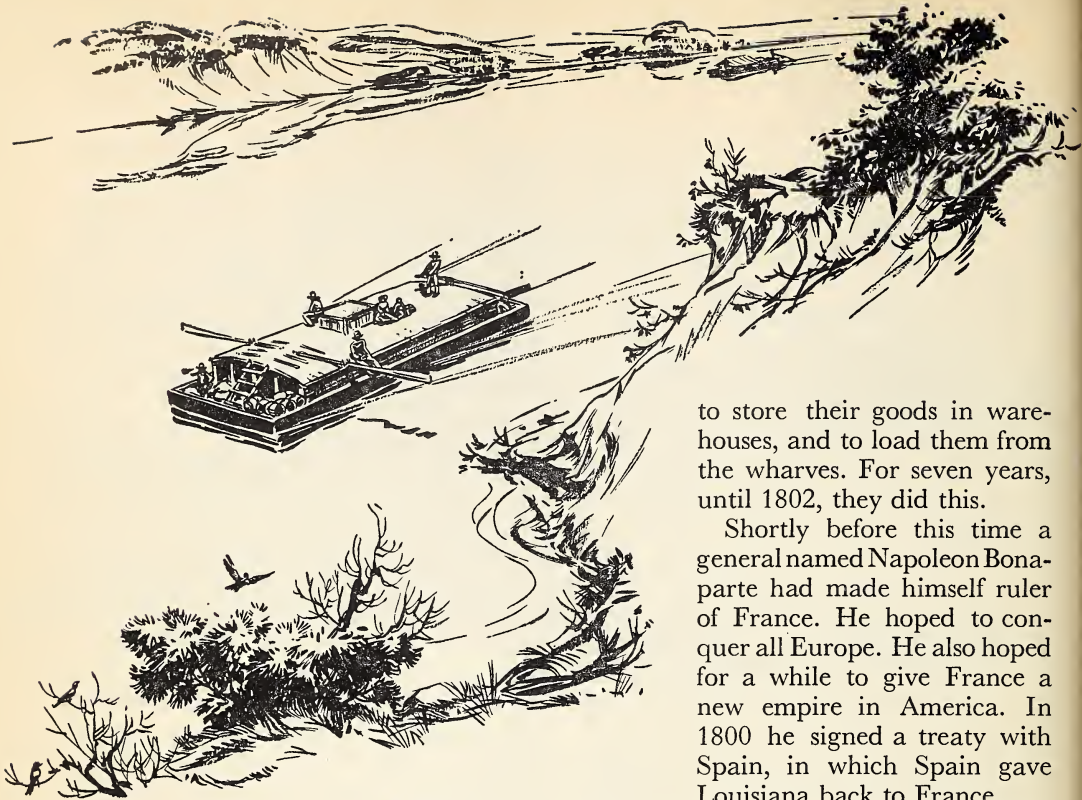
called a flatboat. It looked like a great box with high sides. Part of it was roofed over, and sometimes a little house was built on the boat. The horses and cattle and pigs were loaded on the flatboat, as well as the wagon that had brought the family to the river. Furniture was piled in the boat and covered with a heavy cloth. Farm tools were stacked in a corner. A bed of stones and sand was the fireplace where the cooking was done. The flatboats were carried downstream by the current.

The early pioneers who floated down the Ohio on their flatboats settled near the river. The earliest settlement on the Ohio west of Pittsburgh was Marietta, on the north bank. You can find it on the map on pages 136-137. Most of the earliest settlers, however, made their homes south of the Ohio. Some settled along the Ohio and its tributaries. Still others floated all the way to the Mississippi and down the great river. Movers were still travelling to the West along Daniel Boone's Wilderness Road, too, and along a few other routes.

A wide land grows wider still

There was one serious trouble in the West. Western farmers had products to sell. The rivers that carried settlers downstream were not much help in bringing products back to the East. The heavy flatboats floated downstream easily, but they could scarcely be moved upstream at all. Keelboats were sometimes used for transportation, for they could be rowed against the current. But the work was hard, the way was long, and the little boats of those early days could not carry very large loads.

There was only one easy and cheap way for these western farmers to send crops to a market. They could load



A flatboat on the Ohio

wheat, corn, or hogs on a flatboat and travel downstream on the rivers. Perhaps they floated down the Cumberland to the Ohio, down the Ohio to the Mississippi, and down the Mississippi to New Orleans. Here the products were loaded on ships and sent to the eastern coast or even to Europe.

There was just one difficulty. Spain owned the land on both sides of the Mississippi near the mouth, including the port of New Orleans. The western farmers who sent their products down the river had to store these products in warehouses until they found a ship to take them, and they had to use the wharves for loading. In 1795 the United States government made a treaty with Spain. People of the United States were to be allowed to use the river freely,

to store their goods in warehouses, and to load them from the wharves. For seven years, until 1802, they did this.

Shortly before this time a general named Napoleon Bonaparte had made himself ruler of France. He hoped to conquer all Europe. He also hoped for a while to give France a new empire in America. In 1800 he signed a treaty with Spain, in which Spain gave Louisiana back to France.

In the fall of 1802 Americans were forbidden to use the lower Mississippi. The western farmers demanded help from the government of the United States. Then President Jefferson decided to try to buy New Orleans from Napoleon. He sent James Monroe to France to buy the city and the small part of Louisiana that was east of the Mississippi. But Napoleon needed much money. When Monroe made the offer to buy New Orleans, Napoleon would not take it. Instead, he offered to sell all of Louisiana. On April 30, 1803, Monroe signed the treaty buying Louisiana for fifteen million dollars.

The treaty said that Louisiana was to cover all the area between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. The western farmers could no longer be cut off from using the Mississippi and the port of New Orleans.

Jefferson had spoken of a "wide land" in 1801. Now this land was almost twice as wide. The people of the United States called the new land Louisiana Territory. It was almost unknown country. A few French fur traders had travelled over it long before, as you saw on the map on page 84.

For a long time Jefferson had wanted to send explorers to the Pacific Ocean. Three months before the United States bought the Louisiana Territory, he had asked Congress to approve such an expedition. To lead the expedition, he chose two young but experienced army officers, Captain Meriwether Lewis and Lieutenant William Clark.

In the spring of 1804 Lewis and Clark set out up the Missouri River with a

large party of men. They followed the Missouri and its tributaries as far as they could go by boat. Then they crossed the mountains to the Clearwater River and the Snake River, and travelled down the Columbia to the Pacific. You can find their route on the map on pages 136-137. Later you will learn more about the expedition.

The explorers were gone for more than two years. When they started, they met only fur traders on the Missouri. When they came back, they found settlers on the lower Missouri. The men of the expedition are said to have shouted for joy when they first saw cows grazing along the bank. For two years they had seen no farms—only forests, mountains, and grass land.

A Land of Farms Replaces the Frontier in the Old West

As you know, the first pioneers west of the mountains settled in Kentucky and Tennessee. Because of the danger from Indians, few settlers went to lands north of the Ohio River. It is time now to look at these lands and see how they were opened to settlement.

Settlers north of the Ohio

We shall have to go back a little in our story to a time just after the War for Independence. Plans had to be made for the lands west to the Mississippi. Governments had to be set up. In 1785 the Congress passed a law which was to have great influence on the growth of the Middle West. If you were to drive through the Middle West today, especially through farming sections, you would see some of the results of this law.

The law said that areas were to be *surveyed*, or measured, before they were settled. First the land was to be meas-

ured off in *townships* of thirty-six square miles, or six miles on each side. Then each township was to be divided into *sections*, a mile each way. There are 640 acres in a section, but few settlers in the Middle West bought farms as large as this. A very usual size for a farm was a quarter-section, or 160 acres. You know, perhaps, that farmers still speak of sections and quarter-sections, and farms of 160 acres are still common.

A road was to run along each section line. Even yet there are roads about a mile apart over most of the Middle West. Of course, as time has passed, some of these roads have become much more important than others. Some have become main highways, while others are only dirt tracks or have disappeared because they were not needed. In later years, as other parts of the country were settled, the same method of laying out the land was followed whenever possible.

Great Changes Come to the Nation

Even the way towns are scattered over the Middle West is largely a result of this law. At a crossroads near the centre of each township a village usually grew up. Several townships were grouped together to form a *county*. One of the villages, usually near the centre of the county, was chosen as the *county seat*. We might call the county seat the capital of the county, for it has the courthouse and the offices in which the county government is carried on.

The Congress passed a law called "An Ordinance for the Government of the Territory of the United States north-west of the river Ohio." It is usually called the Ordinance of 1787, and the "Territory of the United States north-west of the river Ohio" is called the Northwest Territory. It covered all the land of the United States between Pennsylvania and the Mississippi River and between the Ohio River and the northern boundary.

The ordinance divided the area into three territories, but said that, as settlement spread, the northern part might be cut off to make two more territories if that seemed wiser. This was done

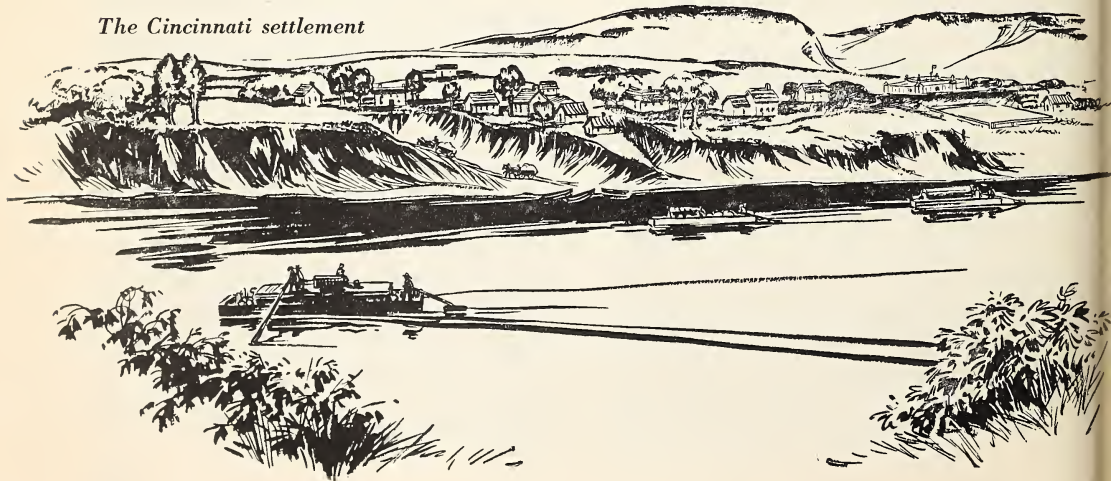
after more settlers had come, and today there are five states in this region.

The ordinance contained a bill of rights for the people who should live in the territory. It provided for education, made rules about how the people should be governed, and said that no people should ever be held as slaves.

The year after the ordinance was passed, settlers built Marietta at the mouth of the Muskingum River and a fort farther down the Ohio River. During the following year a town was laid out at the fort. This town became Cincinnati. Thus new settlements were started north of the Ohio, but few settlers came, compared with the numbers pouring into the land south of the river. Settlers were afraid to come because there was still constant danger of Indian attacks in that region.

Several tribes had given up their rights to the land just north of the Ohio, but Indians of other tribes still attacked the settlers. Twice small armies were sent against the Indians. Both times the Indians defeated them. Then General Anthony Wayne was chosen to lead an army against the Indians. He trained

The Cincinnati settlement



his men carefully and then led them northward. At Fallen Timbers, which you can find on the map on pages 136-137, Wayne's army met the Indians and defeated them.

The Indians signed a treaty giving up all their claims to land in southern Ohio. Then settlers poured into this land so fast that Ohio became a state in 1803. However, almost all the settlers still lived on a strip of land along the river and on the eastern boundary. Farther north, in the region around the Great Lakes, there was still danger of attacks by the Indians.

At this time there was a young Shawnee warrior named Tecumseh, who was a man of great ability. Though he was not a chief, he was a natural leader. Tecumseh knew that Indians had been fighting white men for two hundred years. He knew that in the end the Indians always lost. Sooner or later white settlers took their land. Tecumseh knew that Indian tribes went to war separately. Even when several tribes were fighting at one time, they had no plan for working together. Tecumseh thought all the Indians of the Middle West should form a league of tribes and fight together.

In 1808 Tecumseh and his brother, called the Prophet, went to live on the Wabash River. The place where they made their home is called Prophet's Town on your map. Indians of many tribes passed Prophet's Town, for it was on a trail that led far to the north and to the south. Here Tecumseh and the Prophet told the Indians their dreams for a league of tribes. They also made long trips to visit other tribes. Attacks on settlers began.

Now most Americans honor Tecumseh as a great man who was trying to

do what he could for his people. But the pioneers only feared and hated him. They could not have been expected to see the Indians' side of the problem at a time when they were constantly in danger of attack.

By this time there were a few settlers along the Ohio River in Indiana. Indiana had become a territory, with William Henry Harrison as governor. Harrison got together an army of less than a thousand frontiersmen and led them up the Wabash Valley. At the place that is marked Tippecanoe on the map on pages 136-137, Harrison fought a battle with the Indians. After this fight the Indians retreated to the north. Although Harrison did not win a real victory, the Indians lost faith in Tecumseh's plans. He knew from then on that he would not be able to form his league of tribes. The Indian attacks, however, did not stop.

A second war with Britain

For a number of years many Americans had been asking the president to declare war on Britain. Most of these people were in the region west of the Appalachians. They thought the fur traders and soldiers in Canada were encouraging the Indians to attack the settlers. Few Americans knew whether this was true or not. It may have been partly true. The traders certainly sold guns to the Indians, as traders always had. And it is also true that the traders wanted to keep settlers from crowding the Indians out of regions in which they traded. The settlers wanted to send an army north and make Canada a part of the United States. This, they thought, would be a good time to do so.

Since 1793 Britain had been at war to keep Napoleon from conquering all

Europe. The British fleet and armies were heavily engaged and hard pressed.

Each country was trying to keep supplies from reaching the other, and both were interfering with American trade. This made many people in the United States very angry. Some of the people wanted to fight France, others wanted to fight Britain.

Britain was much in need of sailors for her navy. British ships stopped American ships and sent officers aboard to look for deserters from the British navy. They sometimes carried off seamen who had become American citizens. According to American law, these men had become Americans. According to English law, they were still Englishmen. It seems to us now that it should have been easy for representatives of the two countries to talk over a question such as this and reach an agreement, but this was not done.



American sailor, 1812

At this time James Madison was president of the United States. He did not want war. Neither did many of the other men in the government. They believed that neither Britain nor France could carry on the war without products from the United States. If no goods were sent to either country, fighting might stop. A law was passed, therefore, which said that American ships should not

trade at all. Finally, in 1812, the United States declared war on Britain.

You will remember that a United States army tried to take Canada and that British and French in Canada rallied to drive the Americans out. Instead of reviewing the whole war, we shall read about some incidents important in United States history.

You will recall that in 1813 American forces burned the parliament buildings at York. The next year a British army landed at the mouth of the Potomac and set fire to the Capitol and the president's house in Washington. The British did not try to hold the city, but returned to their ships. Next they attacked Baltimore. During the attack on Baltimore, a young lawyer, Francis Scott Key, went out to see the British admiral about the release of a prisoner. He was kept on the British ship overnight. All through the night he watched the battle. At dawn he saw the flag still flying over Fort McHenry in the harbor and knew it had not surrendered. So great was his joy that he felt a desire to express his feelings in a poem. The poem he wrote was set to music and is now the United States national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner."

The great Canadian hero of this war was Sir Isaac Brock, famous for his victory at Queenston Heights. The great American hero of the war was a naval officer, Commander Perry, who won for the Americans a battle fought on Lake Erie. The young commander was sent to fight a British fleet on the lake. First he had to build his own fleet. His guns and supplies were hauled on wagons over forest trails to Erie, Pennsylvania. There the ships were built.

Perry sailed westward on Lake Erie in search of the British fleet. Near the

western end of the lake a battle was fought, called the battle of Lake Erie, which was a complete victory for Perry.

A famous relic of this war is the warship *U.S.S. Constitution*. In those days cannon shot solid balls of iron, not shells. The timbers of this ship were so hard that cannon balls seemed to bounce from its sides. Because of this, it was called "Old Ironsides." You may visit this ship some day, for it has been kept all these many years.

The war ended in 1814. The treaty of peace said nothing about the difficulties that had brought on the war. Napoleon had been beaten in Europe. There was no reason now for anyone to interfere with American trade or with the sailors on American ships. No land changed hands. Canadians were proud of the way they had defended their country against the forces of their powerful neighbor. Americans were proud of their naval victories on the lakes. Ever since 1814 the United States has respected the determination of Canada to remain a member of the British Commonwealth.

In 1817 the United States and England agreed not to keep warships on the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence. For more than one hundred twenty-five years there have been no defences on the long boundary between Canada and the United States. No forts or soldiers have been needed.

For the settlers in the West, the War of 1812 removed the danger of Indian attacks. The Indians had fought on the Canadian side. Tecumseh had been killed, and the Indians had been de-



feated in a number of battles. Realizing that they could never drive out the white settlers now, the Indians caused little trouble. Piece by piece they gave up their lands.

Settlement had slowed down during the war, but when it was over settlers came by the thousand. So many people came that the movement has been called the "Great Migration." *Migration* is a word used for the movement of a great many people to new homes. Indiana had few settlers before the war, but by 1816 it had enough people to become a state. Most of the settlers lived along the Ohio River, along the Wabash, and in the southeastern corner of the state. Illinois was made a state only two years later. Here most of the people lived in the southern part.

Andrew Jackson, an Indian fighter

Just after the War of 1812 a strange thing happened. One of the greatest American victories was won after the war was actually over. The Treaty of Ghent, ending the war, was signed on

the day before Christmas, 1814. One day earlier a British army had landed from its ships a few miles below New Orleans. And on January 8 the British attacked the city.

New Orleans had been well fortified by General Andrew Jackson, who commanded an army of southern militiamen. When the British soldiers tried to take the city, they were driven off with heavy losses.

No one can be blamed for this needless battle. News could travel only as fast as sailing ships and men on horseback could carry it. Neither the Americans nor the British knew that peace had been made.

The battle of New Orleans had no effect on the war, because the war had already ended. It had two important results, however. In the war most of the fighting on land had gone badly for the Americans. At New Orleans, American soldiers had been able to show that they could fight. Americans were very proud of the victory. The battle also made Andrew Jackson still better known to the people of America. He was already known as an Indian fighter.

Before the War of 1812, Jackson had been a general of Tennessee militia. Several times he had come to the rescue of southern settlers when the Indians were on the warpath. He finally forced the Creek Indians to give up their lands between the southern Appalachians and the Gulf of Mexico.

Later Jackson helped to add Florida to the United States. From the end of the Seven Years' War to the War for Independence, the colonies of East Florida and West Florida were British. Then Spain took them back. When the United States bought Louisiana from France, even the French officials did

not know how far to the east the land extended. The Americans claimed that it included the old West Florida and moved in. Then the settlers declared themselves independent of Spain and asked to have their land made part of the United States.

The Seminole Indians of northern East Florida were still a danger to the people of southern Georgia. In 1818 Jackson led his militiamen into Florida. They captured village after village of the Seminoles. Finally they came to the old Spanish town of Pensacola. The Spanish soldiers stationed there gave up without making a real attempt to defend the town.

In 1819 the United States offered to buy all of Florida from Spain. A treaty was made, and in 1821 the United States bought the colonies for five million dollars. The whole South was now open to settlement. Andrew Jackson had done more than anyone else to make this possible. He became so popular that in 1828 he was elected president.

Southern planters move west

Settlement in the South was quite different from settlement in the North. On pages 72-78 and 98-100, you learned how people lived on the coastal plain in the southern colonies. When settlers reached the Piedmont, ways of living changed. Here ships could not come to plantation wharves for tobacco, rice, or indigo. The first settlers on the Piedmont were animal herdsman. They kept hogs and sheep, but cattle were most important. Throughout the South, cattlemen were usually the first pioneers in each new region. They did a little hunting and perhaps a little farming, but their main occupation was always the herding of animals.



Cattlemen were pioneers in the South

Into the Piedmont and through the mountains, across Kentucky and Tennessee, down to the Gulf, the cattlemen moved on to new frontiers. They had a great advantage over the farmers who grew grain and other products, for animals could walk to market. Even from west of the mountains, herds of cattle and droves of hogs were taken to the seaport cities. Farther west they might be driven to the rivers and loaded on large flatboats.

Later there were pioneer farmers in the South, as in the North. They grew corn and other grains and vegetables. Their products also were shipped down the rivers to New Orleans. After the Floridas became a part of the United States, other rivers flowing to the Gulf could be used, too.

After a time the South was no longer a land of cattle or of small farms. It had become chiefly a region of plantations. To find out how this happened, we must go back again to late colonial days. Tobacco, rice, and indigo were the plantation crops of colonial days. You learned how these crops were

grown on plantations with slave workers. On page 98 you read that the slaves were directed by overseers. They were given simple tasks that could be the same for many workers.

In late colonial days some of the planters near the coast began to grow a new crop. This was cotton. At first no one would have believed that cotton could become an important crop. Although it was suited to plantation farming, it could never have become the great crop of the South if several inventions had not been made.

For the beginning of the story of invention, we must go back to Britain at about the time of the Seven Years' War. A new idea was just coming into the minds of a few people. This was the idea that machines could do work that always had been done by hand or with simple tools. In time this new idea and the invention of machines changed the ways of working throughout the world.

The changes that came about, beginning in the late 1700's, are called the Industrial Revolution. Any great change



An early cotton gin

which comes about quite rapidly may be called a revolution. This one was a change in the way industries were carried on, and so it came to be called the Industrial Revolution.

The two inventions that started the Industrial Revolution were machines for making textiles. Between 1760 and 1800 a number of spinning and weaving machines were invented. With these machines workers could produce many times as much cloth as they could with the old spinning wheels and looms.

The first machines were run by water power, but the inventors were already working on a steam engine. In 1785 an engine was first used to run textile machinery. Then soon there were even more textile mills. Water power was still used where there were streams to supply it, but mills using steam power could be built anywhere.

How new inventions helped

Because of the new mills, Britain needed more cotton. In 1790 the first cotton mill in the United States was built at Pawtucket Falls, Rhode Island. New England was becoming a textile-manufacturing region also. Where were these mills to get their cotton? Their owners expected to get it from the

southern United States, but the planters there could not supply enough.

The planters could grow enough cotton, but the problem was to get the seeds out. As you may know, cotton fibres are attached to large seeds. Removing these seeds by hand was slow work. It was no use to grow more than a few acres of cotton. The slaves would not be able to

clean a larger quantity of cotton and make it ready for use.

Some of the planters thought that a machine could be invented to remove the seeds. A young man from New England, named Eli Whitney, was then living in Georgia. Since Whitney was known to be skilful in using tools, the neighboring planters asked him to try to invent the machine they needed.

Whitney invented a machine with which one man could take the seeds out of fifty pounds of cotton a day. By hand, one worker could clean only one pound a day. Whitney's machine was made in 1793. It was called a cotton gin. "Gin" is a shortened form of "engine." In those days people often called any kind of machine an engine. We no longer use the word in this way, but we still use the name cotton gin for the machine that removes the seeds from cotton.

The invention of the steam engine also had an important effect on the settlement of the South as well as on the ways of living that developed there. The mills were in Britain and New England. Cotton is a heavy and bulky product. It could not be sent long distances by wagon because that would make transportation costs too high.

You have learned that steam engines were invented at about the same time as the first textile machinery. It was not long before people began to think steam engines might be used on boats. A number of people had invented steamboats that would run, but they were not very successful. They were too slow, or they did not have enough power, or they were too clumsy.

In the year after steam engines were first used in the textile mills, a young American artist named Robert Fulton went to England. There he soon became more interested in the new use of machinery than in painting pictures. He was particularly interested in the possibility of making a steamboat.

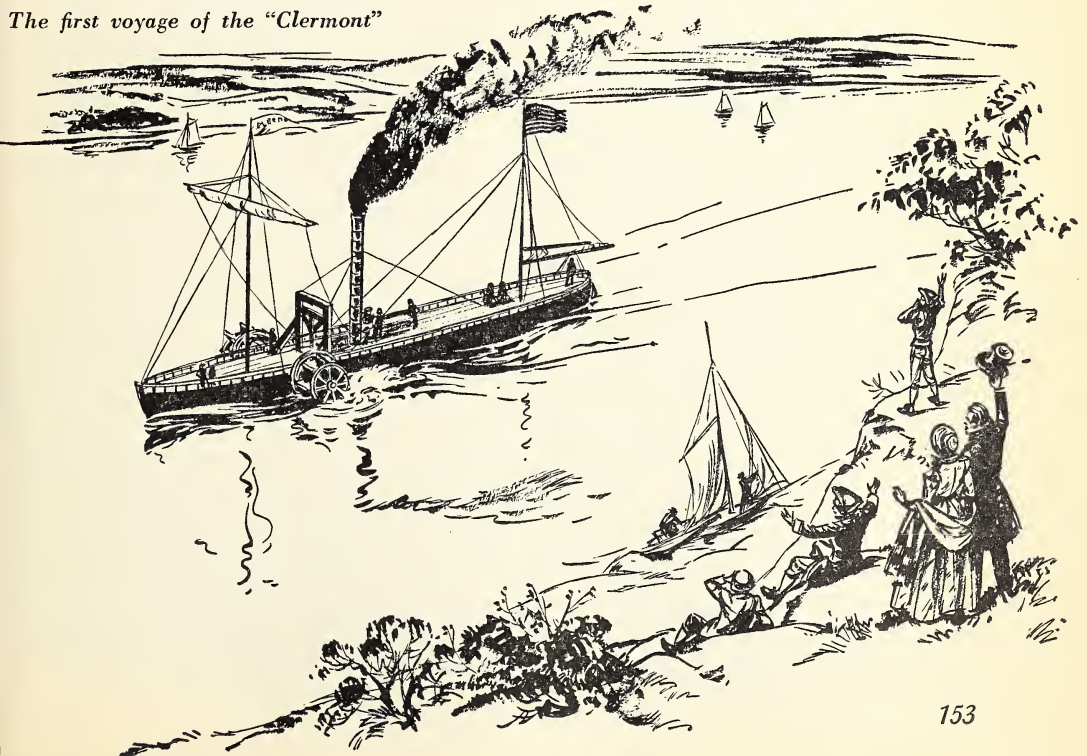
On a trip to France, Fulton met Robert Livingston, who was also interested in steamboat experiments. The

two men became friends and partners. Livingston was wealthy and could furnish plenty of money. In England, Fulton and Livingston bought the best steam engine they could get. Then they returned to the United States to build a boat for the engine. The boat, which was to be called the *Clermont*, was built in New York.

In August, 1807, the *Clermont* was ready. It was to be tested by a trip from New York City to Albany. People gathered on the banks of the Hudson River to see the strange boat. Some called it "Fulton's Folly." They said that an engine made of heavy iron could make the boat go only one way—to the bottom of the river. Others said it would blow up.

When Fulton started the engine, the paddle wheels began stirring the water.

The first voyage of the "Clermont"



Heavy smoke poured from the stack, and the boat moved away. As it steamed all the way to Albany and back, people waited along the banks of the Hudson to see it. They cheered and shouted as the boat passed.

Within the next few years Fulton had twelve more steamboats built for use on the rivers of the East. Then in 1811 a steamboat was built at Pittsburgh. It left Pittsburgh on October 20, 1811, and reached New Orleans on January 10, 1812. Before many years, steamboats were puffing up and down every western river wide enough and deep enough to carry them. Thus the steamboat came just in time to help make the South a land of cotton.

The South has many wide, deep rivers, for most of it is lowland and the

rainfall is heavy. There was room for thousands of plantations within easy reach of these rivers. Soon the steamboat came to be a part of everyday living in the South. Piled high with bales, it took the cotton to the market. It brought clothes and furniture from the cities to the plantations. It carried the planters and their families as passengers on their trips for business and on their pleasure trips.

It is never possible to tell just what might have been if something had not happened, or what will happen in the future. It is almost certain, however, that if the textile machines, the cotton gin, and the steamboat had not been invented when they were, the South could not have specialized in the growing of cotton.

As the Country Grows, Its Parts Become Different

You have seen how the country was settled from the Atlantic coast westward to the Mississippi River. In a few places settlement had gone on beyond the great river where the largest areas settled were in Louisiana, west of New Orleans, and in Missouri.

Louisiana became a state in 1812. A few years later the people of Missouri were asking that their territory be admitted as a state. The first settlers in the area that was to become Missouri were French lead miners. Then in 1764 Pierre Laclède, a French fur trader, founded St. Louis. He had had a trading post on the east side of the Mississippi. When France lost this land at the end of the Seven Years' War, Laclède moved across the river. He thought his new post was on French land, for he did not know that Louisiana had been given to Spain.

Later Louisiana was divided into Northern and Southern Louisiana, with St. Louis as the capital of the northern part. It remained the capital after the United States bought the territory. It was the most important fur-trading post in the Mississippi Valley. The picture on page 155 shows a buyer of furs and a fur trader at St. Louis about 1820. Perhaps the steamboat and the flatboat are bringing things to trade for furs.

As soon as the United States bought Louisiana, settlers began coming to the land along the Mississippi River, above and below St. Louis. Soon there were settlers along the lower Missouri River also. The name Northern Louisiana was changed to Missouri in 1812.

During the Great Migration, after the War of 1812, many settlers crossed the Mississippi to make homes in Missouri. Most of them came from the



The steamboat came just in time (1807) to help make the South a land of cotton.

South. Some floated down the Ohio on flatboats, and others came by land across Kentucky and Tennessee. They travelled in long lines of covered wagons, followed by their cattle and slaves.

Is Missouri North or South?

You learned that the Ordinance of 1787 stated that there should be no slavery in the Northwest Territory, which was the land north of the Ohio River. People had come to think of the Ohio as the boundary between states in which slavery was allowed and states in which it was not allowed.

Now, a little before 1820, Missouri was ready to become a state. Most of its land was farther north than the mouth of the Ohio, but the entire area was west of the Mississippi. The Ordinance of 1787 did not apply to this area. It had been settled largely by people from the South, who brought their slaves with them. These people wanted to keep their slaves.

People in the South were determined that slavery should be allowed in Missouri. People in the North were just as determined that it should not be. Why was this so important? In colonial times there had been slaves in all the colonies, although the South had many more than the North.

Long before Missouri was ready to become a state, slavery had disappeared in the North. Slavery did not pay on the general farms and in the factories of the North. Then many northerners began to think it was wrong for one person to hold another as a slave. They were not used to seeing slaves and had heard stories that made them believe the slaves were cruelly treated. Many of these stories were not true, but they were believed in the North.

If the South had become a land of general farming instead of a land of plantations, slavery would not have paid there, either. But, as it was, the southerners thought they could not work their cotton and tobacco plantations without slaves. They did not believe slavery was wrong. They were used to seeing slaves working on the plantations and knew that few plantation owners were cruel to their slaves. On the whole, the slaves seemed to be happy, and they were not trained for any other kind of work.

As you know, the number of congressmen elected from each state depends upon the population. Population was growing much faster in the North than in the South. Since the North had more people, it had more representatives in the Congress. Many southerners were afraid that the northern congressmen might make laws that were unfavorable to the South or might even vote to free the slaves.

In the Senate the number of representatives did not depend upon the population. As you know, each state had two. The people of the South hoped to be able to stay even with the North in the number of senators. Then they would be able to stop any law that seemed unfavorable to the South.

Down to the time Louisiana became a state, in 1812, the North and the South had the same number of states. Then Indiana became a state in 1816, and Mississippi in 1817. Illinois in 1818 was matched by Alabama in 1819. Then Missouri was ready to become a state. The people of the North were unwilling to allow Missouri to come in as a slave state, because that would give the slave states a majority in the Senate. By 1820, however, Maine was

asking to be admitted. With Maine as a state, the two sections would still be even, so Missouri was admitted as a slave state. At the same time, however, a law was passed which said that no more slave states should be made from any part of the old Louisiana Territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$.

Growth of New England

While the western lands were being settled, the East, too, was changing. There was still farming, but the people were specializing in many other kinds of work. The little towns were growing into real cities. These cities were depending more and more on manufacturing and trade. The most important cities were still the Atlantic seaports, especially Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.

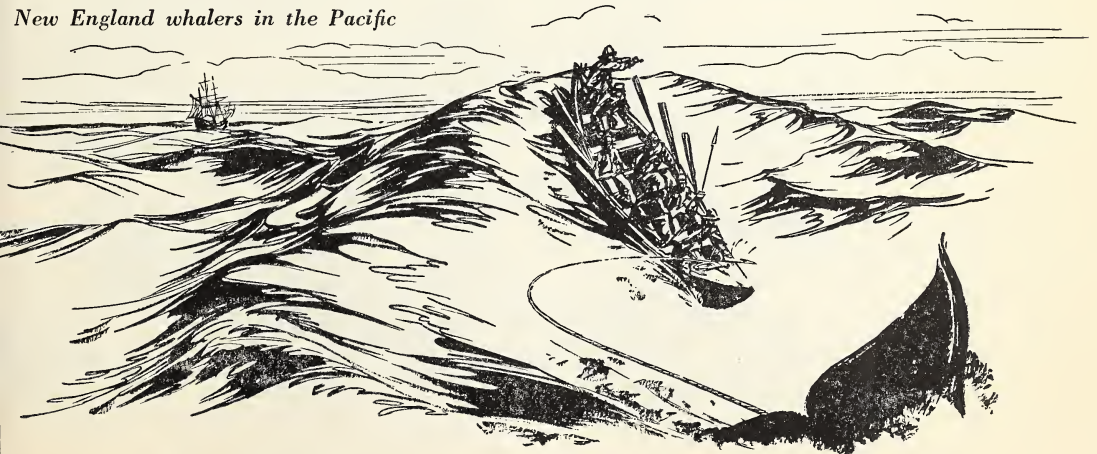
Boston was the great seaport of New England. As in colonial days, many people in New England still depended upon the ocean for a living. Fishing boats went out from the smaller ports of that region, as well as from the port of Boston. Whale hunting was an even greater industry than fishing. Most of the whaling ships made the long voyage to the southern end of South America

and around Cape Horn into the Pacific. They might be away from home for two years or more.

Whales were hunted for their fat, called blubber. On the whaling ship was a large brick furnace. Here the blubber was heated until a fine, clear oil melted out of it. The oil was then stowed away on the ship in barrels. It was used in lamps, and whale-oil lamps were then the best-known lighting for homes.

As traders, the seamen of New England were as famous as they had been in colonial days. They traded up and down the coast, with the West Indies, with Europe, and with China and India. They carried goods for other people. They brought back raw materials for New England industries. New England ships carried cotton from southern ports to New England cotton mills. They sailed around Cape Horn and along the Pacific coast to California. There the Spanish settlers kept great herds of cattle. The traders of New England bought tallow and hides from the Spanish in the West and also from people in other parts of the world. They took these products home. The tallow was made into candles. The hides were

New England whalers in the Pacific



tanned with bark from New England forests, and the leather was made into shoes. Thus two of New England's leading industries got their start because New England had seaports.

New highways to the West

In the earliest days of the United States, Philadelphia had an advantage over other Atlantic ports. You know about the early road across Pennsylvania to the Ohio River at Pittsburgh. Farmers all the way across Pennsylvania could bring their crops and their animals along this road for export at Philadelphia. As settlement spread westward, goods could be brought up the Ohio to Pittsburgh and then over the road to Philadelphia.

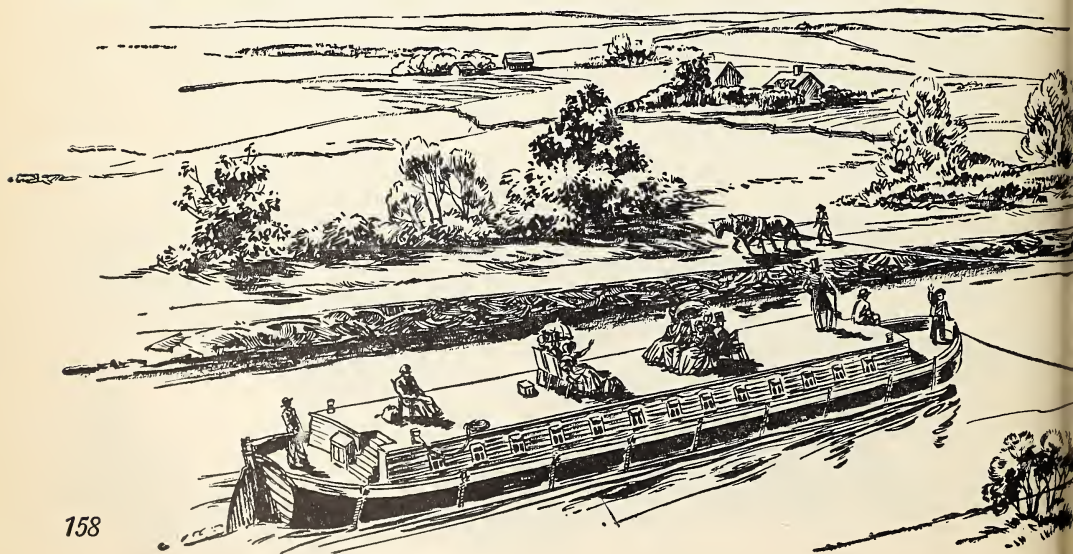
Baltimore was the next port to have a road to the West. The settlers in Ohio thought the old road across Pennsylvania was too crowded. They asked the national government to help build a new road. There were already roads between Baltimore and Cumberland,

Maryland. In 1811 a new road was started west from Cumberland. You can find it on the map on pages 136-137. After it had reached Wheeling on the Ohio, in 1818, it brought many products to Baltimore from the West.

Beyond the Ohio, the National Road, as it was called, was built on to the West. Its building took about thirty years. Section after section of the road was opened across Ohio and Indiana and into Illinois. A great many of the settlers in the central part of these states reached their new homes over this road. It became one of the great highways to the West.

Stagecoach companies were formed to carry travellers along this busy road. The coaches were brightly painted and were large enough to carry nine or ten passengers. Each company wanted to carry more passengers and mail than any other. Each company tried to increase the speed of its coaches so that it would get more business. Stations were located about every twelve miles along

Passenger and freight boats on the Erie Canal



the way. A stagecoach would appear at a station, dust whirling behind it. The four racing horses were pulled to a sudden stop. Fresh horses, already harnessed, were quickly put in place of the tired ones.

There were also companies that carried freight. These companies used the large Conestoga wagons, which could carry as much as four tons. Many families of settlers, too, travelled in their own Conestoga wagons.

Towns began to grow up along the road, sometimes starting around one of the inns where travellers stopped to spend the night. These towns became marketing and trading centres for the surrounding country.

Probably you know that New York is now the leading seaport of the country. Down to the 1820's, however, it was less important than Boston, Philadelphia, or Baltimore. New York had no good route to the West. For many years some of the people of New York had been planning to dig a canal from the

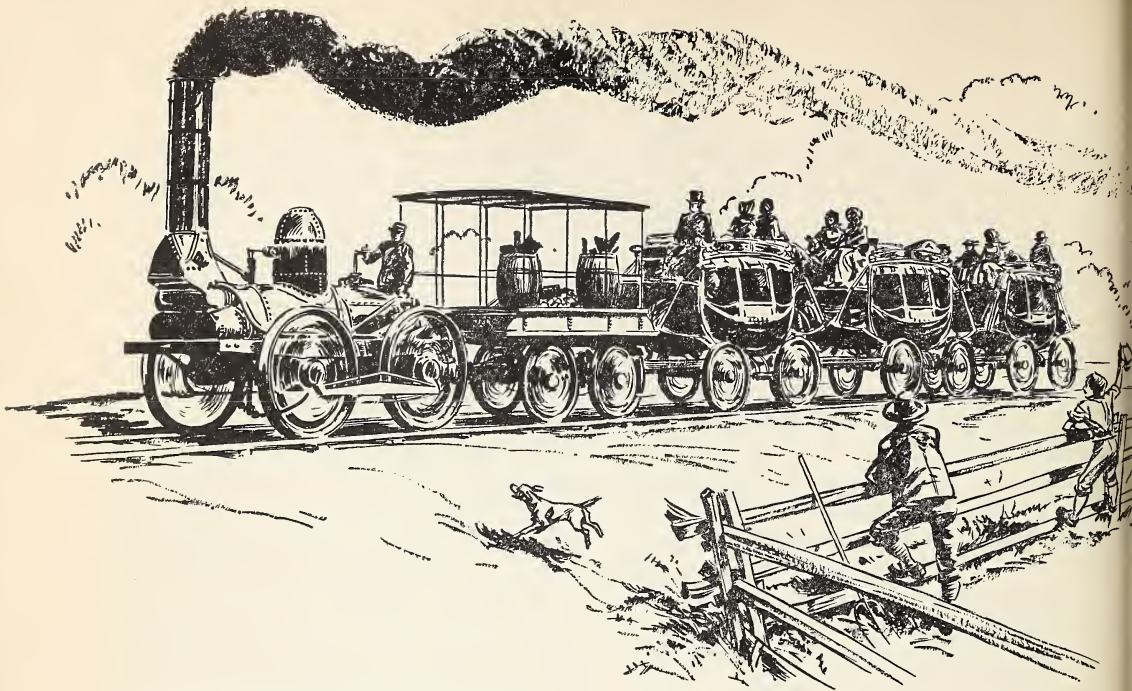
Hudson River along the valley of the Mohawk, and then westward across the lowland to Lake Erie. Work was finally begun on the Erie Canal in 1817.

Thousands of men and horses worked eight years to dig the canal. When it was finished, in October, 1825, a great celebration was held. De Witt Clinton, the governor of the state, with other officials and friends, made the first trip over the canal and the Hudson River from Buffalo to New York. When their boat reached New York, the Governor emptied a keg of water from Lake Erie into New York Harbor and made a speech to mark the joining of the Great Lakes to the Atlantic.

The boats used on the Erie Canal carried as much as a hundred tons of freight. Some carried both freight and passengers. They were drawn by horses hitched to a towline and driven along the bank of the canal.

With the opening of the canal, New York began to grow rapidly. It now had a better and cheaper route to the





The first railroad train in New York

West than any other Atlantic port. Cities grew up and industries developed along the canal. The whole route became one of the busiest areas in the entire country.

The Erie Canal opened up a whole new region to settlement. Until the canal was dug, few settlers had gone to the region around the Great Lakes, because of the lack of transportation. Now it was easy to send crops to the Atlantic coast and get goods back in return. During the first fifteen years after the Erie Canal was finished, all of northern Indiana and Illinois and southern Michigan and Wisconsin were settled. Then Michigan became a state, and Chicago and Cleveland began the growth that was to make them large cities of the Great Lakes region.

The success of the Erie Canal led to the digging of other canals. In 1832 a canal was opened from Cleve-

land on Lake Erie to the Ohio River. Many canals were finished and many others were planned. Then something happened that almost stopped the digging of canals and changed people's ideas about transportation. This was the invention of steam locomotives to run on railroads.

The idea of a land vehicle run by a steam engine was not new. Inventors had tried to build such vehicles almost from the time the steam engine was invented. It had already been discovered that wagons could be pulled more easily on rails than on roads. Railroads over which wagons were pulled by horses were used to carry coal from mines and rock from quarries.

Now inventors began to work on the idea of a locomotive to pull a train of coaches and wagons on a railroad. The first really successful locomotive was made in England.

The first American railroad to use steam engines was the Baltimore and Ohio, in 1830. At this time the railroad was only thirteen miles long. Its first engine was made by an American named Peter Cooper.

This railroad was built section by section westward from Baltimore. Work was slow because the rails had to follow mountain valleys. The railroad did not reach the Ohio River for twenty-five years, but in the meantime it had brought much business to Baltimore.

At the same time a railroad was being built west from Charleston. As on the Baltimore and Ohio, horse-drawn

wagons were used first, and then steam locomotives. This railroad brought business to Charleston and increased its importance as a port.

At first all railroad lines were short. Many of them joined one waterway with another. After a time short lines were connected and formed longer lines. As the railroads stretched out across the country, they had a great influence on settlement. Wherever they were built, the population became denser. Farmers who lived near a railroad could be sure of a way to send their crops to market. Along all the railroads towns grew up as marketing centres.

A New West Is Won for the United States

So far in this book the region between the Appalachians and the Mississippi has been called the West. The people who first settled it called it the West. It was the frontier, the farthest west that settlement had extended. By 1821 there was a new West beyond the Mississippi. The state of Missouri had been added beyond the river.

At the time of the War for Independence, no one thought that the United States would ever extend beyond the Mississippi. Then in 1803 all of Louisiana Territory was added. This addition carried the boundaries of the country to the Rocky Mountains, except in the South. There a large area still belonged to Spain. West of the Rockies all the land up to 42° north latitude belonged to Spain. It was a part of Mexico, which included most of the old colony of New Spain.

About the time Missouri became a state, all of the colonies of Spain and those of Portugal on the two American continents were fighting wars for their

independence. Mexico became an independent country in 1821. From now on, we must speak of lands in the West as Mexican, not Spanish.

Settlers in the new West

Between 1820 and 1840 the frontier moved west beyond the Mississippi to include all of Missouri and Arkansas and southeastern Iowa. People were going far beyond the frontier as hunters, explorers, and settlers. Many Americans were beginning to think that the United States should extend all the way to the Pacific.

In those years no one else knew the West as the mountain men did. They were the traders and trappers who crossed the plains into the mountains with horses, pack mules, traps, and rifles. They searched for trails, hunted, and trapped. Usually they were away for a year or more on a trip. When other travellers began to cross the West, the experienced mountain men were the best guides they could get.

Great Changes Come to the Nation

West of the Rocky Mountains and north of 42° was a large area called the Oregon country. Both the United States and Britain had good claims to this region. The British claim was based chiefly on the voyages of Drake and Vancouver. The American claim was based chiefly on the voyages of Gray and the expedition of Lewis and Clark. In 1818 the two countries agreed that both should use the Oregon country until it was settled and a fair division could be made. Both British and American fur traders went to the region and built trading posts there.

Between 1830 and 1840 two missions were founded in the Oregon country by American churches. Settlers came to live near these missions. With several thousand settlers in Oregon, the region could no longer belong to both Britain and the United States. In 1846 the two countries agreed to let parallel 49 be the boundary.

Other settlers began going to California, which was part of Mexico. In the year 1845 a group of people, called

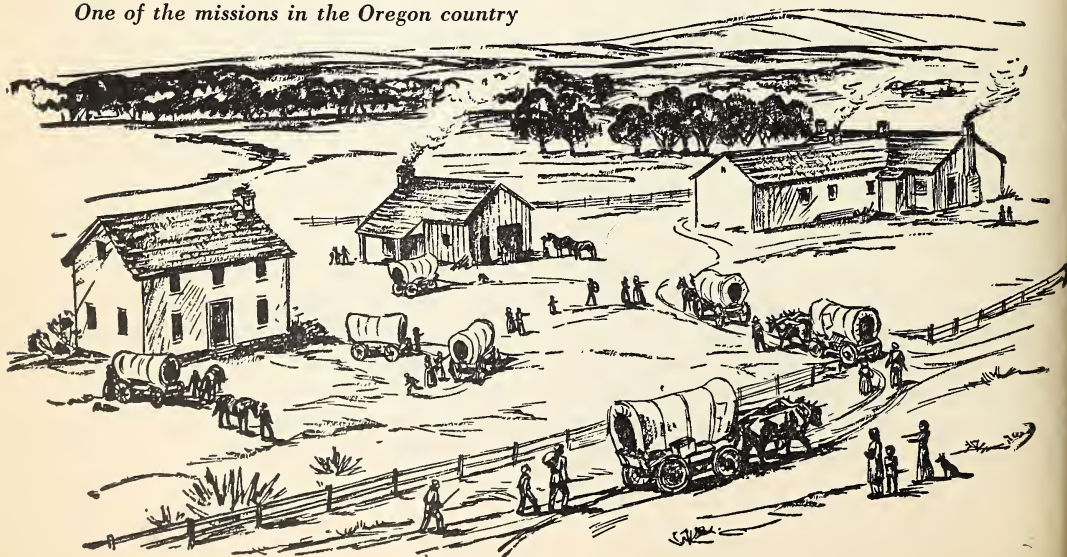
Mormons, started west from Illinois to find new homes on land that belonged to Mexico. These people settled between the Wasatch Mountains and Great Salt Lake. You will learn later how they turned their new desert home into fine farming land.

American settlers had also moved into Texas, which was then a part of Mexico. The Mexican government gave them permission to buy land for farming and grazing. The first settlement was started in 1822 by Stephen Austin. After that, more and more settlers followed until there were many Americans living in eastern Texas.

For many reasons the American settlers did not get along well with the Mexican government. The Mexicans had wanted only Roman Catholic settlers in Texas, but many who went there were Protestants. The Americans asked for a separate government for Texas. They did not want Mexican officials to interfere with them.

The men who governed Mexico began to fear that the American settlers

One of the missions in the Oregon country





The Alamo at San Antonio



The flag of the republic of Texas

were trying to get complete control of Texas and turn it over to the United States. The Mexican government then made stricter laws for the settlers. At last the Texans declared themselves independent of Mexico.

But the Mexicans had been expecting trouble in Texas and had soldiers ready. Under their leader, Santa Anna, a Mexican army attacked a group of Texans in the Alamo, a fort in San Antonio. Every soldier in the Alamo was killed. The building is still standing, and Texans are very proud of it.

"Remember the Alamo!" became the battle cry of the Texans. Under their leader, General Sam Houston, they defeated and captured Santa Anna. Texas became an independent *republic*. A republic is a country in which the heads of the government are all elected by the voters, as in the United States.

For nine years Texas remained independent. From the beginning the Texans had requested the United States to *annex* their country. This means that they wanted it to become a part of the United States.

Finally, in 1845, Texas was annexed. It was admitted to the Union as one state, not five, as some southerners had

hoped. During the same year trouble began over the Texas boundary line. Texas and Mexico disagreed as to the location of the boundary between the two areas. On the map, pages 136-137, you can see that the Rio Grande has its source in the mountains far to the north. It flows south and then south-east to the Gulf of Mexico. This river is the line Texas claimed as the boundary. If you look to the north of the mouth of the Rio Grande, you will find another river, much smaller than the Rio Grande. This river forms the line Mexico claimed.

There was an American army in Texas under the command of General Zachary Taylor. Taylor's army took a position on the north side of the Rio Grande. Mexican troops were stationed on the other side of the river. The Mexican troops crossed the river, but the Americans drove them back. This fighting took place in 1846. It was the beginning of the Mexican War. When James K. Polk, who was then president, heard that Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande, he at once declared war on Mexico.

Then there was fighting in Texas, in California, and in New Mexico, which

lay between. Finally an American army invaded Mexico and took the capital. This victory ended the war.

The treaty that was signed in 1848 gave to the Americans the land they wanted. Mexico had to give up New Mexico and California in return for \$15,000,000. The Rio Grande was to be recognized as the boundary between Mexico and the United States. So it was by agreement with Texas and by war with Mexico that the great stretch of territory in the southwest was added to the United States.

In 1853 a small strip south of the Gila River was bought from Mexico.

This is called the Gadsden Purchase. Desert land, such as this is, might not seem very valuable, but the United States paid \$10,000,000 for it. It was to become part of the route of a railroad to the Pacific coast. But that belongs to another story.

Just think for a moment about the growth of the country. A few persons live to be more than ninety years old. When this last bit was added to the United States, there were people living who were born when there was no United States and the English colonies extended only as far west as the crest of the Appalachian Mountains.

The Country Breaks Apart and Is Reunited

The country reached its full size in 1853, but already there were beginning to be signs that it might break apart. You will remember how the North and the South had grown apart even before 1821, when Missouri became a state. Differences between the sections increased as the years passed. Every time a territory was ready to be admitted as a state, the quarrel about slavery arose again.

Can the Union be divided?

People began to say that the Union could not last if it were divided into free and slave sections. They said, too, that the North and the South were becoming so very different that they were like two entirely separate countries. Many southerners saw no way out of this quarrel.

For a long time people of the North and the South had had different ideas about the United States. Many people in the South believed that the United States was really a league of independ-

ent states. The thirteen colonies had won their independence as separate states. They had agreed to unite and to give up some of their rights to the national government. If the states were united only because they had agreed to be united, then a state could at any time withdraw from the Union.

Very few northerners agreed with this. Most of them believed that each state was better off as part of a large country with its many regions and many resources. A strong country with a strong central government was better for their industries and trade—or so they thought.

In 1860 the quarrel reached its highest point. In that year Abraham Lincoln was elected president of the United States. Lincoln was elected by northern voters. He believed, as most northerners did, that the United States should not be allowed to fall apart over the question of slavery.

Within a short time after Lincoln's election, eleven of the southern states

left the Union. They formed a separate nation called the Confederate States of America. They set up a government and elected Jefferson Davis as president. Missouri, Kentucky, and Delaware decided to remain in the Union, though they had slaves. Virginia divided, and the western part became a new state, West Virginia.

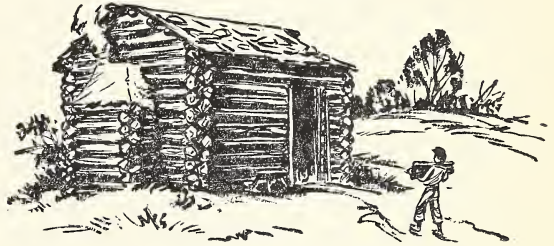
Lincoln found himself in a difficult position. He believed his first duty as president was to bring the southern states back into the Union. At his inauguration he said that he had sworn to "preserve, protect, and defend" the government of the United States.

In 1861 southern troops fired on a United States fort in Charleston Harbor. The government leaders at Washington acted quickly. They were determined to unite the states by force if necessary. So preparations for fighting were begun.

The American Civil War was a long, hard one. It is often called the War between the States. Both sides had brave armies and good generals. Both sides were strong in some ways and weak in others. The North had the greater number of soldiers and more factories and mills for making arms and equipment. It also had more railroads to carry troops and supplies. The South had men who were more used to riding and shooting. More southern officers than northern ones had been trained during the Mexican War.

As president of the country during these unhappy war years, Lincoln had duties which were very difficult and very important. He was loved by many and hated by many, but he has been remembered as one of the outstanding presidents. You will want to know a little more about him.

Lincoln was a real frontier boy. His father was Thomas Lincoln and his mother was Nancy Hanks Lincoln. He had an older sister, Sarah. When Abe was a small boy, the Lincoln family lived in Kentucky. Their home was a one-room log cabin with a hard-packed dirt floor. As soon as Abe was big enough, he carried water, filled the woodbox, cleaned ashes from the fireplace, hoed weeds, and picked berries and grapes.



In those days most boys and girls on the frontier went to school only a few weeks a year when work on the farms was light. When young Abe was seven years old, he walked four miles to the log schoolhouse where he learned his A B C's and his numbers.

Then Tom Lincoln decided to move to Indiana. He went alone to choose his land and then returned for his family. They loaded their few belongings on two horses and rode through the wilderness. Then they crossed the Ohio River and rode on to their new farm. Here they built a rough shelter with walls on three sides. The fourth side was open. They lived in this for a year while the father cleared the land and built a better cabin. During this year young Abe learned how to use an axe. He cut down trees and notched logs

for the cabin. Now and then he and Sarah walked nine miles to school and nine miles back.

Abe grew very fast. By the time he was seventeen, he was six feet four inches tall. He was becoming an expert in handling the axe. One of the neighbors said, "He can sink an axe deeper into the wood than any man I ever saw."

Stretched out in front of the fireplace, Abe would read until midnight and past. He wanted to know things and to learn more. Books were scarce. As one of Abe's friends said, wildcats were more plentiful than books in that part of Indiana. Abe often walked miles to borrow a book. Later he told a friend that he had read every book that was to be found within fifty miles of his home.

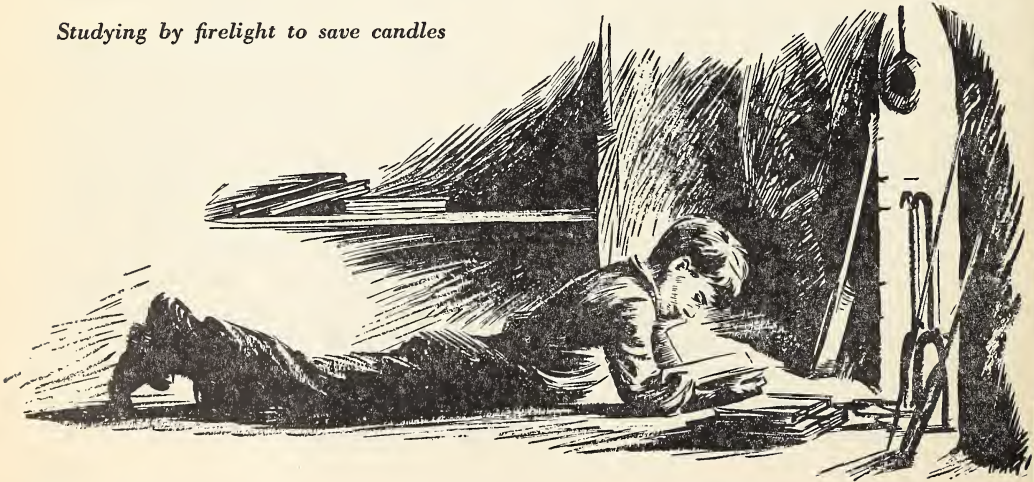
When Abe was twenty-one, the family moved to Illinois. Soon Abe went to work in a general store in New Salem, Illinois. When the owner gave up the store, Lincoln set up one of his own in New Salem and served as village postmaster while keeping the store. At the same time he began studying law

and later became a lawyer. When he was only twenty-five years old, he was elected to the Illinois legislature.

In the 1850's, when the slavery question was being discussed everywhere, Lincoln made speeches which showed that he had been thinking carefully about the problems of the country. More and more people became interested in what he had to say. Then, as you know, he was elected president.

General Robert E. Lee led the southern armies during the war. He was loved by southerners and admired by northerners. Lee had served in the Mexican War as an officer of the United States Army. The separation of the northern and southern states made him very unhappy. When the war began, President Lincoln asked Lee to command the Union army. Lee was a Virginian and felt that he could not fight against his own state and his family and friends. He wanted to do what was right. This was a hard choice. It was a struggle between his love for his state and his love for his country. Finally he decided that his first duty was to be loyal to his own state.

Studying by firelight to save candles



At the end of the war the commander of the Union armies was Ulysses S. Grant. Like Lee, Grant had fought in the Mexican War and was an experienced officer. Lincoln and Grant had great faith in each other and worked well together.

“One nation indivisible”

The war lasted for four years. Each side had its victories and its losses. The Confederate soldiers fought bravely, but they ran short of supplies to carry on. Finally the northern armies overran the South. In April, 1865, the end came. The southern armies surrendered.

During the war the United States government declared the slaves free in the states that had left the Union. This was done to make it harder for the southern people to grow food. Most of the slaves stayed on the plantations, however, even when they heard that they had been declared free. At the

end of the war the slaves were freed also in the states that had not left the Union, though they had slaves.

The war left both North and South with serious problems to solve. You will hear about them again. Two important questions were decided, however. Never since has there been a slave in the United States, and never since has part of the country tried to leave the Union. It has become “one nation indivisible,” as it is called in the Pledge of Allegiance to the flag.

There were people living in 1865 who could remember the year 1801, when Jefferson spoke of a nation advancing “to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye.” For a time the war had stopped that advance, but now the nation was ready to march on. In the West, far beyond the Mississippi, were great new frontiers still to be conquered. For many years the opportunities offered by these new frontiers would fill the thoughts of millions of Americans.

The History Workshop

You will need to choose very carefully when you select events to add to your time chart, for you will probably have more than you can use. You have read about new settlements, additions to the country, great inventions, roads and canals, and three wars. In choosing, decide which ones you think were most important in making the United States what it is today.

This period of United States history that you have been reading about ends in 1865. In your review of the history of Canada, you should extend this period to the year 1867. The confederation of British North America ends the parallel period of the history of Canada.

Wherever you live, you will be sure to find interesting things to add to the history of your community in this period.

What were their names?

In the pages you have been reading, you learned about the following men: Stephen Austin, Daniel Boone, William Clark, De Witt Clinton, Peter Cooper, Jefferson Davis, Robert Fulton, Ulysses S. Grant, Robert Gray, Richard Henderson, Andrew Jackson, Thomas Jefferson, Francis Scott Key, Robert E. Lee, Meriwether Lewis, Tecumseh, and Abraham Lincoln. From this list, supply the names that are left out in the following sentences:

1. xxxxx was a leader of the American settlers in Texas.
2. xxxxx built the first successful steamboat.
3. xxxxx laid out a road to Kentucky and led many pioneer settlers across the Appalachian Mountains.

4. xxxxx was a president of the United States who bought a great area of land from France.

5. xxxxx wrote a famous song about a flag.

6. xxxxx was president during the War between the States.

7. xxxxx was a southern pioneer, an Indian fighter, a general in the War of 1812, and a president of the United States.

8. xxxxx was a famous Indian leader, who tried to get the tribes to work together. He was killed in the War of 1812.

9. xxxxx was a southern general in the War between the States.

10. xxxxx was president of the Confederate States of America.

The history of the world

Here are some important events of world history which happened in the period you have been studying, between 1815 and 1871. You may use them in any of the ways which have been suggested previously. You will find something about each event in an encyclopedia.

1829—Greece wins independence.

1830—First railroad operates.

1830—Belgium becomes a nation.

1837—Queen Victoria is crowned.

1840—China is open for trade.

1848—France becomes a republic.

1851—Napoleon III becomes emperor.

1854—Florence Nightingale begins nursing in the Crimea.

1857—The Indian Mutiny.

1860—Garibaldi unites Italy.

1861—Russian serfs are freed.

1864—The International Red Cross Society is formed.

1869—Austria and Hungary are united.

1869—The Suez Canal is opened.

1870—The Siege of Paris.

1871—The German Empire is formed.

A wide land became wider

In 1801 Thomas Jefferson called the United States a "wide land," meaning a large country. Within the next fifty years

it grew much larger. Name the large addition of territory described in each of the paragraphs below.

1. An area bought from France which made the country about twice as large as it had been before. It was bought because the western settlers wished to be able to use the Mississippi River freely.

2. An area that became part of the United States after the Mexican War. It has been divided into five states.

3. An area that declared its independence from Mexico and later asked to be annexed by the United States. It is now the largest state.

4. An area in the northwestern part of the country claimed by the United States and Britain. The two countries finally agreed to divide the land along the forty-ninth parallel.

5. An area obtained from Spain after an Indian war. It is in the southeastern part of the country and is now a state.

What would you leave out?

Each of the following sentences has one or more words that do not belong in it. Which words would you leave out to make the statements correct?

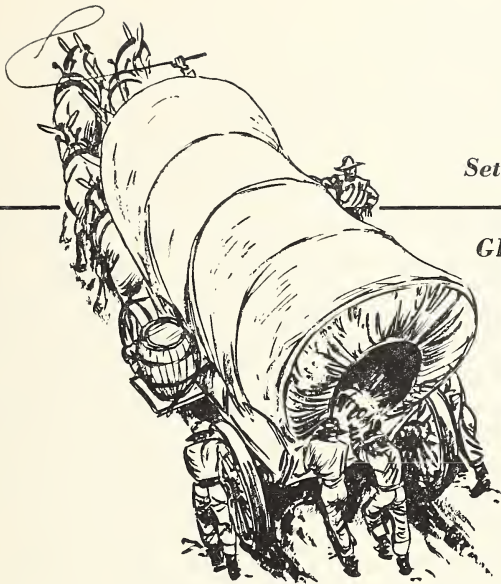
1. The inventions that helped the South become a land of cotton were the steamboat, the stagecoach, the cotton gin, textile machinery.

2. If you had been going west in the year 1825, you might have travelled in a steamboat, Conestoga wagon, canal boat, or railroad train.

3. In United States history, Northwest Territory was an old name for the land between the Ohio River and the Great Lakes, extending west as far as the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains.

4. During the years from 1800 to 1850 trading, coal mining, whaling, and cotton manufacturing were important New England industries.

5. The first new states added to the Union were Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri.



Settlement of the

GREAT WEST



Settlement of the Great West

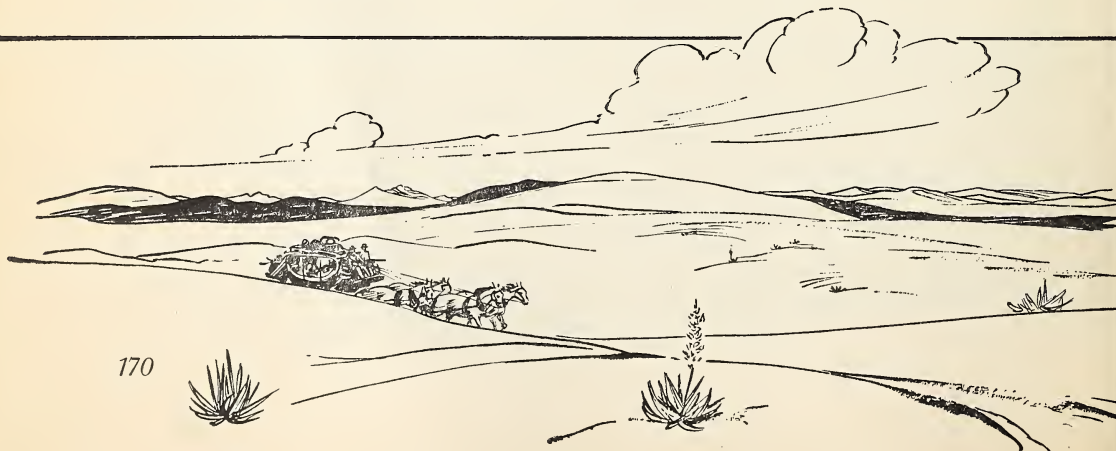
When Did the First Settlers Come to the West?

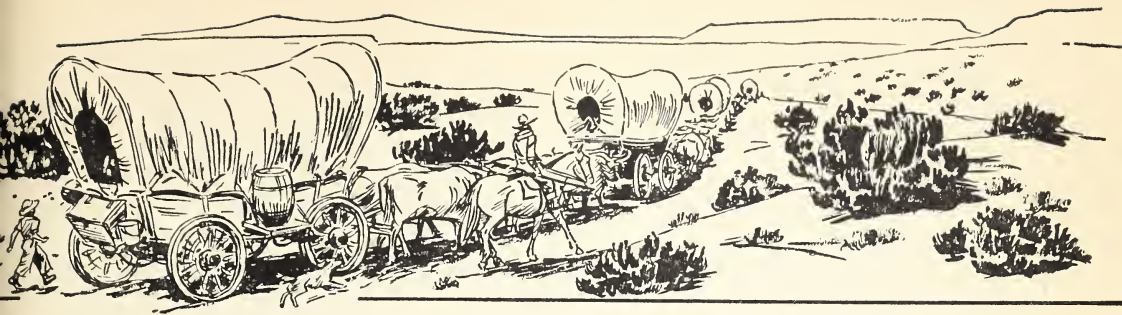
Most of this book has been about explorers and pioneers. The story of the Americas begins with men in little ships. At first they felt their way around the strange, wild coasts of two continents. Then explorers moved inland, on horseback, on foot, in canoes on the rivers and lakes. Settlers came, too: Spaniards to the West Indies, South America, and southern North America; Portuguese to South America; English, French, Dutch, and many others to North America.

The story of the United States begins with the few settlers who came to the James River in 1607. Slowly at first, then faster and faster, settlers came to the Atlantic coast. As more settlers came, the frontier began to move west.

Settlers moved farther up the river valleys. They chopped down trees and built cabins. They cleared the land and made farms.

By the time of the Revolution, the frontier had reached the Appalachian Mountains. A few settlers had gone beyond them. The Revolution ended in 1783. Within the next twenty-five years the frontier moved to the Mississippi River. It crossed the Mississippi long before the War between the States. By 1860, there were settlers as far west as eastern Texas, eastern Kansas, and a corner of southeastern Nebraska. Westward lay a stretch of unsettled land hundreds of miles wide. It was still called the "Indian country," but far





away, near the Pacific coast, there were a number of settlements. The two settled regions were laced together by long, dangerous trails across the Indian country.

The War between the States ended in 1865. The next twenty-five years were the days of the last frontier, which was not on the Pacific coast or even in the Rocky Mountains. It was the Great Plains region, east of the Rockies.

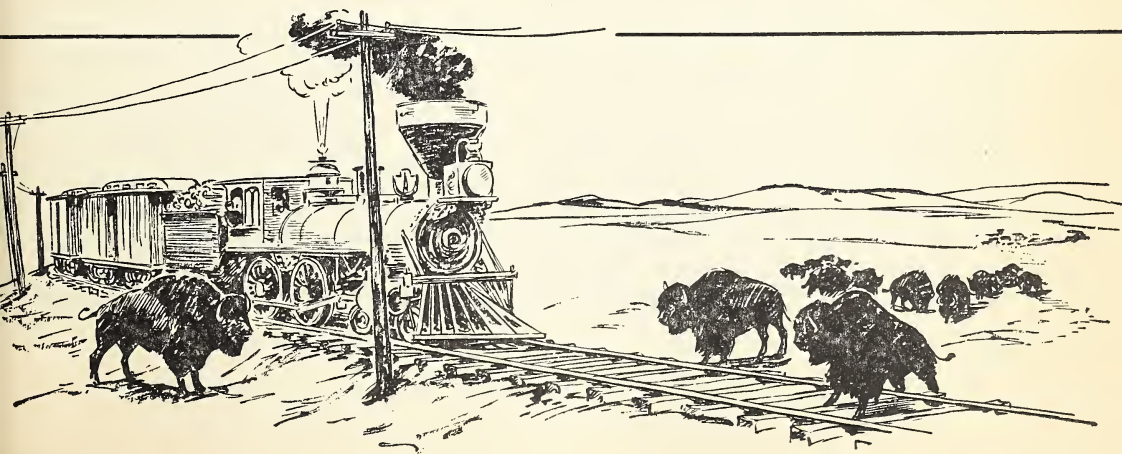
Before you go on with the story of the last frontier, you need to know more about the early history of western United States. You have caught a few glimpses of it. Perhaps you would like to review what you already know about it. If so, turn back to pages 32-36, 92, 134-135, 144-145, and 161-164.

What do Americans mean when they speak of the West? Where does it begin? People along the Atlantic coast often think of it as beginning just west of the Appalachian Mountains. People along

the Pacific coast often think of it as beginning with the Rocky Mountains, or even farther west.

There is no boundary line to mark the beginning of the West. Texas and Oklahoma may be thought of as part of the West or part of the South. The Dakotas, Nebraska, and Kansas may be thought of as part of the West or part of the Middle West. In the story you are about to read, all these states are considered part of the West. The map on page 174 shows you the West as it was just before the War between the States. The story will explain everything you see on it. Use the map to locate any place or route.

To begin the study of the West, you must go all the way back to Coronado. Such a long step backward in time is likely to be confusing. The time chart on page 173 will keep you from being confused. Use it whenever you need it.



The first date on the chart is 1540. The column at the left tells you why the date was important in the history of the West. It was the year Coronado's expedition began. The column at the right tells you that De Soto and Cartier were exploring the eastern part of the continent at the same time. You have read about every event on the chart. All events in the first column took place in the West. The second column lists events in other parts of the United States.

From the time chart you see that Drake was sailing along the California coast at about the time Raleigh was trying to found colonies on the Atlantic

coast. Santa Fe, New Mexico, is almost as old as Jamestown. Before Philadelphia was founded, there were 3000 Spanish settlers in the valley of the Rio Grande. Spanish settlement in California began a little before the Revolutionary War. That was the time, you remember, when the first settlers were beginning to move west of the Appalachian Mountains.

As you read the stories that follow, you will find many dates. Some of them are more important than others. They are given here so that you can tell the order in which things happened. You will find another use for them when you come to the Workshop.

Spaniards Explore and Settle the Southwest

As we now know, the earliest important exploration in the West was the work of a Spaniard, Coronado. So we begin our story of exploration and settlement with his journeys.

The first explorers

In 1540 Coronado started north from Mexico. You know his story. He explored a large area in the Southwest. Turn back to the map on pages 28-29 and trace his route with your finger. His journey gave Spain a claim to a very large area in the Southwest.

While Coronado was on his long journey back to Mexico, two little Spanish ships started northward along the west coast. They were commanded by Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo, a Portuguese captain hired by the Spaniards. Cabrillo was ordered to look for a strait leading from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Explorers, you remember, had sailed along the Atlantic coast looking for such a strait.

Starting out from southern Mexico, Cabrillo's little ships struggled to the

northwest for three months. They would gain a little distance. Then winds from the northwest would drive them back. In the three months they made only a little more than a thousand miles. Then, on September 28, 1542, Cabrillo's ships entered a bay. The men went ashore. The harbor was San Diego. So far as we know, Cabrillo and his men were the first Europeans to set foot on the land that is now the state of California.

Slowly Cabrillo's ships sailed northward again. The men spent a week on the Santa Barbara Islands. During the stop at the islands, Cabrillo broke his arm. Although he was in great pain, he insisted on sailing as soon as the winds were favorable. Terrible storms came up. Cabrillo and his men passed the entrance of San Francisco Bay without seeing it. Then the wind shifted to the north. The ships were driven south before the wind. They anchored in a bay, perhaps Drakes Bay, but the men could not land because of the high winds. In fact, they did not land until they were

A TIME CHART

<i>West</i>		<i>East</i>
Coronado explored the Southwest	1540	De Soto and Cartier explored in the East
	1550	
	1560	St. Augustine was founded
	1570	
Drake was on the California coast	1580	Raleigh tried to plant colonies
	1590	
Santa Fe was founded	1600	Jamestown was founded
	1610	
	1620	Plymouth was founded
	1630	
	1640	
	1650	
	1660	
	1670	Marquette and Joliet explored the Mississippi
El Paso was founded	1680	Philadelphia was founded
	1690	
	1700	
	1710	New Orleans was founded
	1720	
	1730	First settlers came to Georgia
	1740	
	1750	
France lost American possessions	1760	
Spanish missions, forts, and settlements were founded in California	1770	Revolutionary War began
	1780	Declaration of Independence
	1790	Washington became president
Gray discovered Columbia River	1800	
Louisiana Purchase	1810	Jefferson became president
Lewis and Clark expedition	1820	War of 1812
Treaty for joint occupation of Oregon	1830	Great migration to Mississippi Valley
First American settlement in Texas	1840	Erie Canal opened
First missionaries in Oregon	1850	
Texas annexed; Mexican War began	1860	War between the States



back in the Santa Barbara Islands. There they spent the winter.

During the winter Cabrillo died as a result of the old injury to his arm. Before he died, he made his pilot, Ferrello, commander of the two ships. Cabrillo instructed Ferrello to sail northward again in the spring and continue the search for a strait. Ferrello sailed as far as northern California or southern

Oregon. Then he had to go back to Mexico with his ships because most of his men were ill.

It was more than fifty years before Spaniards landed again in California. It was during those years that Sir Francis Drake sailed along the Pacific coast and stopped to repair his ship. From California he sailed across the Pacific and completed his voyage around the world.

Spaniards, too, had sailed across the Pacific from Mexico to the Philippines. No ship had ever been able to get back. In tropical latitudes the wind usually blows from the east. These easterly winds, called trade winds, blew the ships swiftly on their way. The voyage from east to west across the Pacific was not difficult. But ships that had to run before the wind could find no wind to bring them back. The Spaniards knew that farther north, in the latitude of California, the winds usually blow from the west. A Spanish captain finally made use of this knowledge. He sailed north from the Philippines until he found the westerly winds. Then he turned east and ran before the wind until he saw the coast of California. Turning southward, he followed the coast to Mexico. The voyage took more than four months, but the ship did make the voyage from west to east.

After this a trade started that was to last for two and a half centuries. As you know, Spain claimed the Philippine Islands because of Magellan's voyage. Spanish traders built the port of Manila for their trade. One or sometimes two ships went from Mexico to Manila and back each year. These ships were called Manila galleons.

On the way to Manila the galleons were lightly loaded with gold and silver from the mines of Mexico. On their return from Manila they carried heavy loads of silk, cotton, spices, perfumes, fine dishes, carved furniture, and beautiful ornaments.

In 1595 Sebastián Rodríguez Cermenho was captain of one of the Manila galleons. The Spanish officials in Mexico ordered him to explore the coast and map the course home from Manila. Cermenho first saw the coast of North

America a little north of 41°. He sailed southward along the coast until he came to a large bay. There he anchored and went ashore. It was the bay that is now called Drakes Bay. Cermenho took possession of the land for Spain.

A storm came up while the galleon was anchored in the bay. The ship was driven ashore and was broken to pieces. All the fine goods were scattered along the shore, and the Indians gathered them up. The captain and his men went on to Mexico in a small sailboat. Although they nearly starved, they still took time to explore the coast. Cermenho's careful notes added greatly to the knowledge of California.

Six years later another Spanish expedition with three ships sailed northward from Mexico. The commander was Sebastián Vizcaíno. He named many places along the coast and was especially pleased with Monterey Bay. He described the shape of the bay, the points of land, the trees, and the curved beach. Then he added that it was "the best port that could be desired."

First Spanish settlements

After Vizcaíno's report, there was talk in Mexico of founding a settlement on Monterey Bay. It would be a place where the Manila galleons could stop for fresh food and water. Nothing was done about it, however. The first settlements were founded farther east. Even before Sir Walter Raleigh tried to found colonies on the Atlantic coast, there was a mission far up the Rio Grande. It was near the place where Albuquerque, New Mexico, now stands. The first settlements in New Mexico were failures. Here, as everywhere else, people had to learn about the country before they could make a successful settlement.

Settlement of the Great West

The real settlement of the Southwest began in the year 1598. A band of settlers was travelling slowly northward across Mexico. In this band were 130 families—men, women, and children. There were 270 men without families. The settlers had 40 wagons and 1700 cattle. There were horses and little gray donkeys.

At last the settlers came to the Rio Grande. They knew this river as the Rio del Norte—River of the North. Turning left, they followed the river upstream. Finally they came to a place where the river could be forded easily. They knew this river crossing as El Paso. The settlers followed the valley northward. Far up the valley they chose a place and established a settlement. In 1609 the settlement was moved a few miles to Santa Fe.

On pages 88–91 you read about how Frenchmen explored the Mississippi and

La Salle tried to found a settlement there. The Spaniards thought that the French might occupy the whole region between Florida and New Mexico. They decided to make new Spanish settlements north of the Rio Grande. In 1690 a Spanish expedition from Mexico arrived in southeastern Texas. There, the story goes, they built a log mission in three days. It was called San Francisco de los Tejas—San Francisco of the Tejas, or Texas, which was the name of a tribe of Indians.

The Indians were unfriendly from the beginning. After three years the missionaries learned that the Indians were planning to kill them. In the night they buried the mission bells and then left for Mexico. It was more than twenty years before the Spaniards came back. During these years the French founded Biloxi, Mobile, and Natchez. They founded Natchitoches as a trading post

The early Spanish town of Santa Fe



on the Red River and were trading with the Indians to the west.

When the first Spaniards came back, they were guided by a French fur trader. The expedition was made up of twenty-five soldiers, twelve missionaries, and six settlers. They drove with them a thousand animals, so that they might start farms and ranches. These figures show how important to history a few people can be. The Spaniards settled in the region west of the French trading post at Natchitoches. One of their missions was at Nacogdoches. San Antonio was founded in the same year as New Orleans. Within a few years there were missions, villages, farms, and ranches scattered over the surrounding region.

Settlement of California

Spanish settlement of California was begun in the year 1769. The Spaniards still knew very little about California. They had descriptions of landmarks along the coast, but they knew nothing about the land behind the coast. The Spaniards planned to begin their settlement with missions at San Diego and Monterey.

Early in July, 1769, two ships arrived at San Diego, bringing soldiers, a map maker, a baker, two blacksmiths, seeds, farm tools, and equipment for mission churches. Then two land expeditions came, bringing more soldiers, and also missionaries, Indians from the missions in Mexico, horses, mules, and a great herd of cattle.

The outlook was discouraging. Almost everyone who had come by ship was sick. The first buildings in the settlement were little huts to shelter the sick. Those who came by land were hungry and tired. They had had to travel for weeks over the desert and

through rough, mountainous country. The travellers had to find their own way, and they had to find water and grass for the animals they brought.

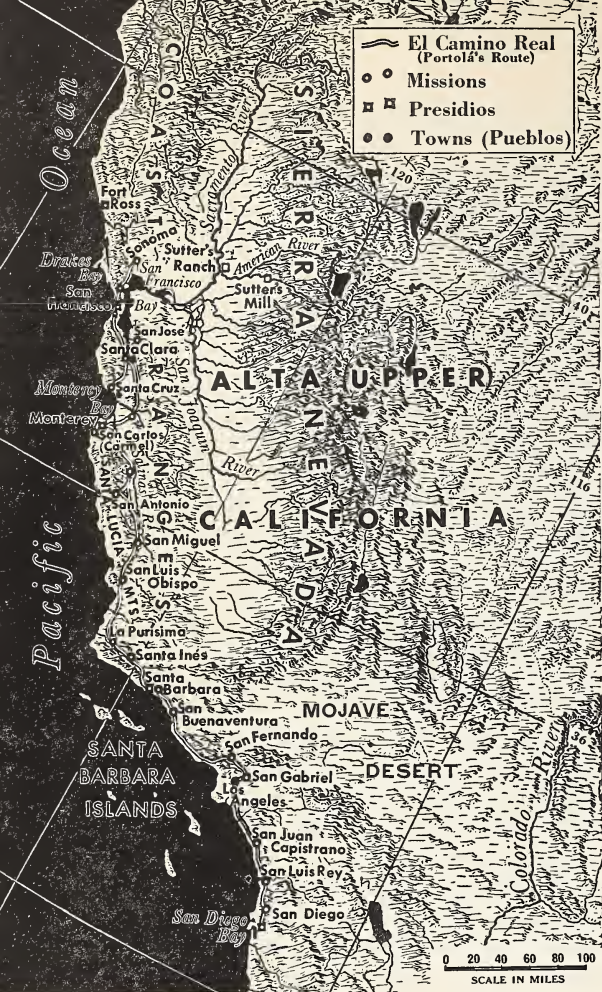
Two remarkable men were in charge. Father Junípero Serra was to direct the founding of missions. Gaspar de Portolá was commander of the whole expedition. Less courageous men than these might have given up.

Portolá sent one ship with a crew of eight men back to Mexico for help. Most of the missionaries were to stay in San Diego to care for the sick. A few soldiers were left to protect them. Portolá took everyone else who was able to travel and set out for Monterey.

Portolá sent a few men ahead as scouts. They were to find a way. Next came Portolá with two friars and some of the Spanish soldiers. Portolá's soldiers were called leather-jackets, from a kind of armor they wore. They had sleeveless jackets made of seven thicknesses of deerskin sewed together. Indian arrows would not go through the heavy leather. The leather-jacket soldiers carried shields made of heavy bull hide. They were armed with swords, lances, and muskets. Father Crespi, one of the friars, wrote that they were the best horsemen in the world.

The Indians from Mexico came next. They were followed by a hundred pack mules. At the end was another group of leather-jacket soldiers driving a herd of spare mules and horses. This sounds like a large force, but altogether there were only sixty-four men.

You can trace Portolá's route on the map on page 178. It was the route later followed by the road *El Camino Real*. At first the little army had no trouble. Travel was easy over the lowland near the coast. Then came the Santa Lucia



Early settlements in California

Mountains, and there seemed to be no way to get through them. The expedition camped for a week while the scouts looked for a pass. Finally they found a place where the mountains could be climbed. From the top the Spaniards looked northward. As far as they could see, mountains blocked their way. They struggled through them and at last came to the Salinas Valley. Now travel was easier. It was made easier still by the knowledge that the end of the journey must be near. Vizcaíno had found the latitude of Monterey Bay when he was

there. The valley seemed to be leading them to the coast in just the latitude Vizcaíno had recorded.

At last Portolá and his men reached the sea. From a hill they looked out over a beautiful bay. The landmarks were just as Vizcaíno had described them. The latitude was right. But something was wrong. It was so wrong that Portolá decided this could not be Monterey Bay after all. Vizcaíno had praised Monterey Bay as a wonderful harbor, sheltered from all winds. This bay was not sheltered. The mouth was many miles across, and was open to the winds and waves of the whole wide Pacific Ocean.

Sadly Portolá decided that he had not finished his task of finding a road to Monterey. Vizcaíno's port must be farther on. The men were tired and hungry. Eleven were too ill to ride and had to be carried in litters hung between two mules. In many places the trees and bushes were so thick that the men had to clear a road through them. Sometimes they had to build bridges across streams.

The Spaniards followed the valleys northward to the place where Palo Alto—which means Tall Tree—now stands. There they turned westward and came to the coast again. Portolá sent a party of men northward to explore. A hunting party set off to the east to try to get animals for food. Portolá and the rest of the men remained in camp. In a little while the hunters came back, very excited, to tell what they had found. They had climbed a range of hills and had seen, spread out before them, a huge body of water which extended farther than they could see. This was San Francisco Bay. Soon the men who had gone north also came

back. They reported that their way had been blocked by a deep channel which they could not cross. This channel was the entrance to the bay. Thus San Francisco Bay and the Golden Gate were discovered.

Portolá's journey back was even harder than the journey north. Men and animals were tired. The supplies had all been used. Long before they got back to San Diego the explorers had to eat some of their mules.

As soon as possible Portolá started north again. The ship had come with supplies, and he sent it on to Monterey, while he took the long road overland. Only sixteen soldiers were well enough to ride with him.

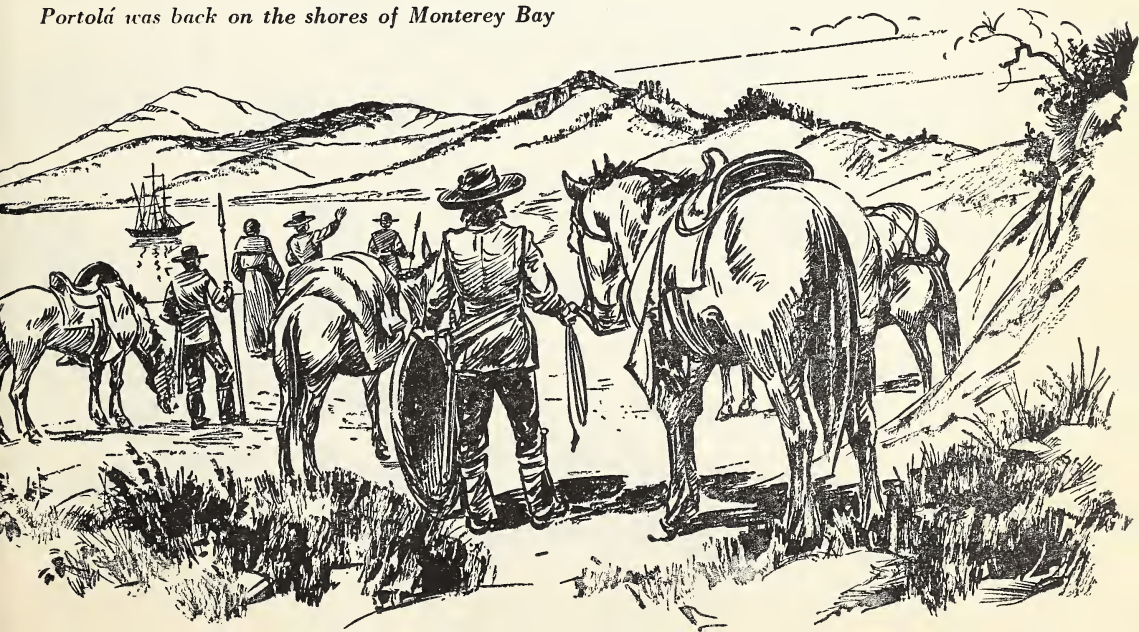
In June he was back on the shores of Monterey Bay. This time he was sure it was Monterey. Everything fitted the description, except that there was no good harbor. Vizcaíno must have been mistaken. There could not be two bays with exactly the same landmarks. Portolá had a *presidio*, or a place where soldiers are stationed, and a mission estab-

lished on the shores of the bay. Then he sailed back to Mexico. His task was accomplished.

Father Junípero spent the rest of his life in California. He founded the first nine missions there. Later there were many more. They were about thirty miles apart, and they reached from San Diego northward to Sonoma. Thirty miles was about one day's journey on horseback. The road that led from mission to mission was called El Camino Real—The Royal Highway. At first it was only a path that horseback riders could follow. Then it was a track wide enough for wagons and carts. A paved highway, still called El Camino Real, follows nearly the same route today. You can find some of the missions and the road on the map on page 178.

The Indians of California were much less civilized than the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Arizona. They did not even farm. They were skilful basket weavers, but baskets were almost the only well-made articles they had. The friars came to teach these Indians.

Portolá was back on the shores of Monterey Bay



Each mission had two friars. Their only helpers were the Indians. The first buildings were huts made of sticks plastered over with mud. Later, when the Indians became more skilful, fine stone buildings were put up. Many of them are still standing. It is hard to believe that the work was done by Indians who had never even seen a stone building. The missionaries must have been very good teachers.

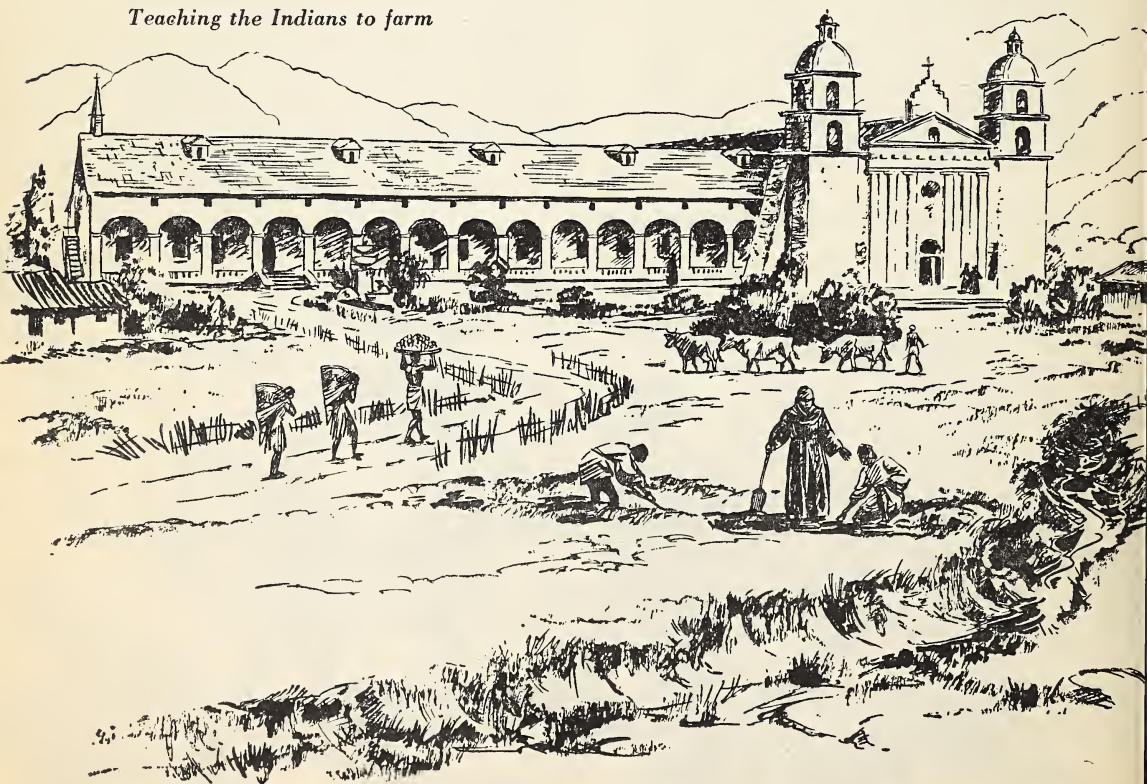
The missionaries also taught the Indians to farm. First they laid out irrigation ditches. Then they tried out crops to find which were suited to the climate. Grapes, oranges, olives, almonds, and figs were some of the crops brought to California by the missionaries. They taught the Indians to grow grain and hemp and to care for cattle and sheep.

Besides the missionaries and soldiers, there were soon ranchers in California. The Spanish government gave large areas of land to settlers who wished to become ranchers.

Life was easier and pleasanter on the California ranches than it had been for the early settlers. The men cared for the cattle and spent much time in hunting, partly to protect the cattle from wild animals and partly for sport.

The women worked harder than the men. Families were large, and so there was much cooking and sewing to be done. Still they were not too busy. Houses were simple and made of adobe. Often the floors were of beaten earth. There was not much furniture. Men, women, and children had plenty of time for picnics, dances, and visiting.

Teaching the Indians to farm





Sea otters

Traders Find Their Way to the West

You saw the settlement of California begin a few years before the Revolutionary War. San Francisco was founded in 1776. This, you remember, was the year in which the Declaration of Independence was written. Los Angeles was founded in the year that Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown.

The colonists on the opposite sides of the continent knew scarcely anything about each other. Only in Texas had there been any contact between Spanish settlers in the Southwest and other Americans. Soon there would be more contacts. Already the English, Russians, and Americans were approaching the Spanish territories. The attraction that drew them was fur.

Traders on the Pacific coast

You read earlier how Russian traders began to come to North America in the 1740's. The first Russian settlement in Alaska was at Kodiak and was founded in 1783. A few years later the Russian-American Fur Company was organized. It was to have charge of all Russian fur trading and hunting in North America. Alexander Baranof was the first manager of the company. Baranof Island was named for him. In 1802 Sitka was

built on Baranof Island and was made the capital of Russian America.

A few years later the Russians decided to establish a post in California. In 1811 Baranof came to buy land from the Indians. In return for the land he gave them three blankets, two axes, three hoes, and some beads. The next year the post was built. It was called Fort Ross. The map on page 178 shows where it was. A hundred Russians and eighty Aleutian Islanders came from Alaska. They built a log fort with a palisade around it and set up ten cannon to protect it. There were comfortable living quarters for the men. There was even a piano.

From Fort Ross the Russians traded with the Spaniards in California, though such trade was against Spanish law. They also traded with the Indians for furs. The Aleutian Islanders had come as hunters. In their canoes they paddled far south along the California coast, hunting fur seals and sea otters.

You have heard about several Spanish ships that sailed far to the north. There were others. One Spaniard, named Heceta, may have sailed into the mouth of the Columbia River. He reported signs of a great river there.

Strangely, for a number of years no one else could find it. In 1788 an English captain sailed into a bay which he thought should be the mouth of the great river. He did not go all the way to the head of the bay because he thought he saw great waves breaking all around the shore.

In the same year Robert Gray made his first trip along the coast. As you read on page 134, Gray came back in 1792. An English explorer, George Vancouver, was also sailing along the coast that year. He failed to find the Columbia River, but Gray was more fortunate. He sailed into Heceta's bay and found that it really was the mouth of a great river. Gray's discovery gave the United States its first real claim to land on the Pacific coast.

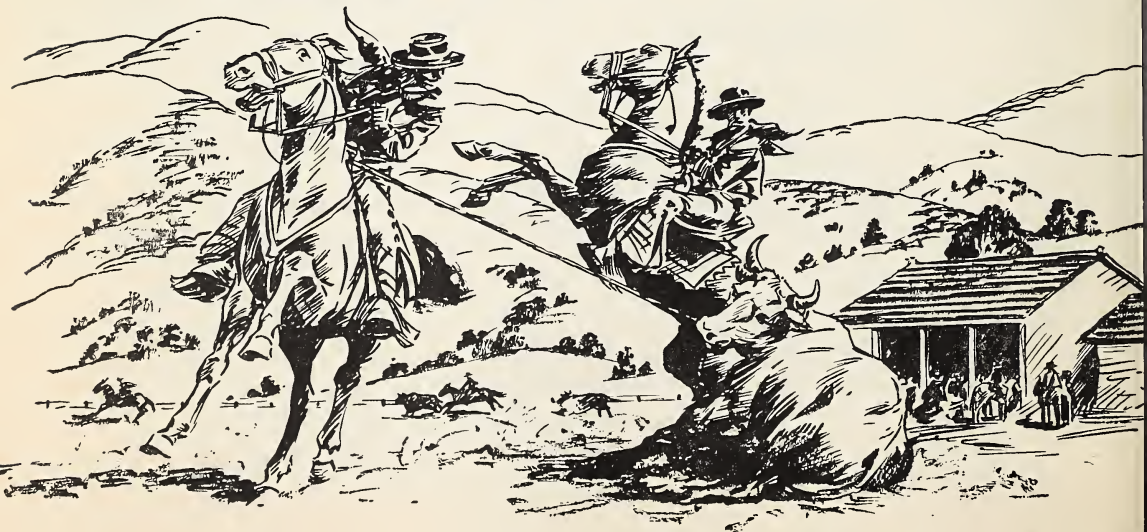
Many American traders began coming to the Pacific coast. They traded with the Indians. They traded with the Russians. Other American captains and crews came to hunt. They did not trade at all, but hunted sea otters and seals. The sea otter was the most valuable animal along the coast. Its beautiful thick, soft fur brought the highest prices

in China. Like the seal, the sea otter lives in the water. It was hunted from boats or canoes.

At first the Americans did not trade in California. Spanish colonists were forbidden to trade with people of other countries, but the Spaniards began to trade in spite of the law. The Californians were expected to get manufactured goods from Mexico. The supply was never satisfactory, and after 1810 it almost stopped. In that year groups of Mexicans began to revolt against their Spanish rulers. Wars and revolts continued in Mexico until the 1820's. During those years of fighting, California was almost cut off from Mexico. The Californians depended almost entirely upon New England traders for manufactured goods. Later, when California was a province of Mexico, the trade went on.

By the time Mexico became independent, the otters were almost gone. So many had been killed that it no longer paid to hunt them. By this time the New England traders had discovered other valuable products in California. Do you remember the great cattle

On a California cattle ranch



ranches? The ranchers, of course, could not sell meat. There were no refrigerator ships in those days. There was no way to keep meat from spoiling. What the Californians could not eat was wasted. They really raised the cattle for the hides, horns, and tallow, or fat.

Tallow was valuable because a great many people used tallow candles for lighting. It was also used for making soap. Horn was used to make combs and many articles that are now made of plastics. Leather was used, as it still is, for shoes and many other things. Leather from California was an important reason for the growth of shoe factories in New England.

Explorers by land

On pages 83–93 you read about the explorations of the French fur traders and the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1784 a number of independent Montreal fur traders united to form the North West Fur Company. A Scotsman, Alexander Mackenzie, explored for the new company. The fur traders still hoped they might find a large river flowing toward the Pacific Ocean. In 1789, Mackenzie started out to look for such a river. You can find Mackenzie's name on any map of North America. He discovered a great river and followed it to the Arctic Ocean. The river was named for him.

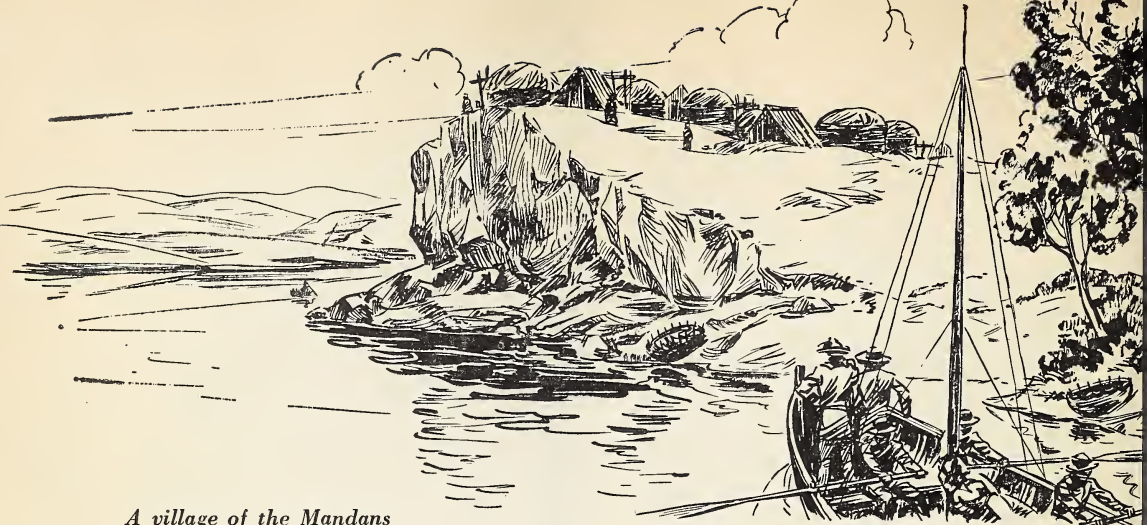
In 1793 Alexander Mackenzie started out again. He travelled up the Peace River in a canoe, with six Frenchmen and two Indians. The explorers followed a tributary of the Peace River into the mountains. Then they buried their canoe and travelled on foot over a short, easy passage and down the western slope of the mountains. They had crossed the continental divide. They



Early settlements in Northwest United States

came to a larger river and got a canoe from friendly Indians. Farther on, when they came to a place filled with rapids, they left the river and crossed the coast ranges to the Pacific. The map on page 174 shows where they reached the coast. Mackenzie was the first European to cross North America north of Mexico.

It was generally believed that the river Mackenzie had followed was the upper part of the Columbia. A few years later another Scotsman, Simon Fraser, followed the river all the way to its mouth. He discovered that it was not the Columbia, and that it emptied much farther north. The river was named the Fraser in his honor. You can find it on the map above.



A village of the Mandans

The next great western exploring expedition came from the United States. On pages 144-145 you read how the United States bought Louisiana from France, and President Jefferson sent Lewis and Clark on an exploring expedition westward. You can follow their journey on the map on pages 136-137.

During the winter of 1803 to 1804 Lewis and Clark set up winter quarters on the Mississippi River across from the mouth of the Missouri. They spent the winter selecting men and training them for the hard trip. In May the expedition crossed the Mississippi and started up the Missouri River. There were forty-five men travelling in three boats. The largest boat was 55 feet long. It had a sail for use when the river was wide and the wind blew in the right direction. It also had oars. Where the river was narrow and crooked, the men pulled the large boat with ropes from the shore.

During that first summer the boats sailed 1600 miles up the Missouri. In October they reached the lands of the Mandans, a tribe of friendly Indians. The men cut down trees and built log cabins for living quarters and store-

houses. They called their camp Fort Mandan. You can find it on the map on pages 136-137. Lewis and Clark arranged with the Indians to bring them food. They sent men out to hunt deer and buffalo so that they would have a supply of meat for the winter.

Living in a Mandan village were a French trapper and his Indian wife. Her name was Sacajawea. Sacajawea belonged to a tribe far away to the west. She had been captured and carried away from home in a tribal war. Lewis and Clark thought she might be useful as a guide and hired her, with her husband, to go with them.

So far the expedition had met many fur traders. Now they were about to start off into unknown country. A third of the men were sent back down the river with the large boat. Small canoes were built. Then in April the rest of the expedition started out again on the Missouri in the canoes.

Above Fort Mandan travelling became more difficult. The river was narrower and more twisted. When the expedition reached Great Falls, it took the men two weeks to portage their supplies around the falls and rapids. At last they

decided they must leave the river. They were in the Rocky Mountains. The river was too narrow and its water flowed too swiftly for travel by canoe.

Now Lewis and Clark needed guides who knew the country. They were in the country of Sacajawea's tribe, and she expected to meet some of her own people. A strange thing happened. Lewis went ahead with a few men, trying to find some of the Indians. He found an Indian camp and persuaded the chief and seven of his warriors to go back with him to join the rest of the expedition. When the two parties met, they learned that the chief was Sacajawea's brother.

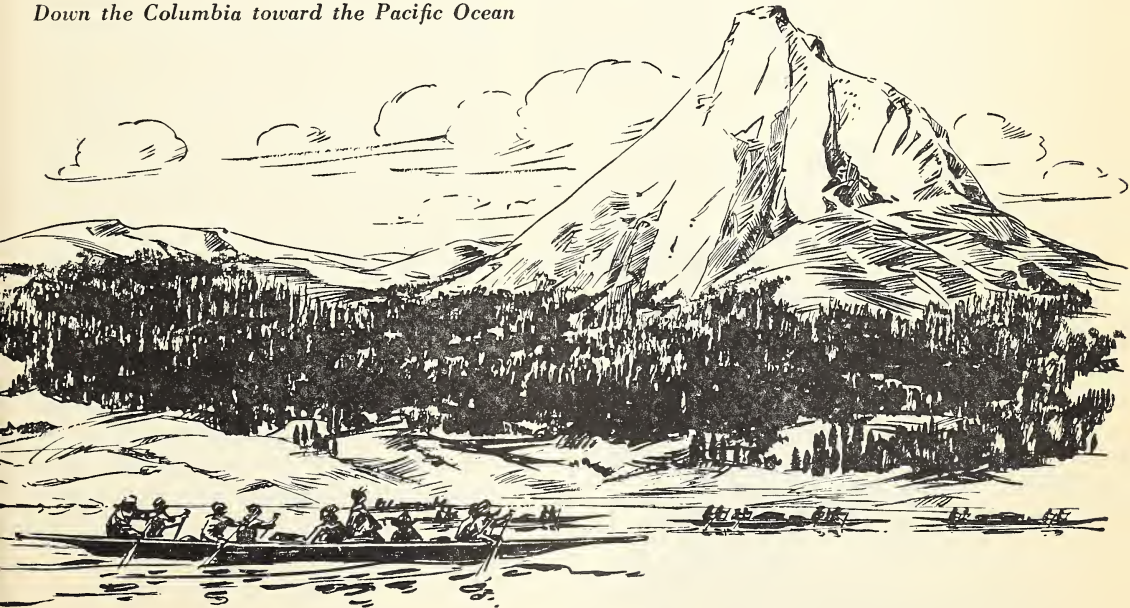
The expedition might have been a failure without Sacajawea. She had been taken because she knew several Indian languages. Without her, Lewis and Clark could not have talked with the Indians they met. They would not have been able to explain what they wanted and to get help from the Indians.

The friendship that grew up between the Americans and Sacajawea's people, the Shoshone Indians, was even more important. The Indians gave the expedition food when they had little themselves. They waited to help the Americans across the mountains, though they were anxious to move eastward to the plains on their yearly buffalo hunt.

From the Shoshone Indians, Lewis and Clark got food, horses, and a guide. The trip through the Bitterroot Mountains was hard. The trails twisted about through narrow valleys and over ridges. At times even the Indian guide lost his way. There was no game, and the men were hungry. Finally the party reached the Clearwater River. Friendly Indians gave them food and told them how to reach the Pacific.

On the banks of the Clearwater the explorers made dugout canoes. In these they paddled down the Clearwater to the Snake, down the Snake to the Columbia, and down the Columbia to

Down the Columbia toward the Pacific Ocean



the Pacific. Although they were going downstream now, the way was not always easy. The tired, hungry men had to carry their canoes and baggage around rapids. Several times they and their belongings were spilled into the river.

The expedition reached the mouth of the river on November 7, 1805. The men started at once to build log cabins. They called their camp Fort Clatsop. The cabins were comfortable, but many of the men were ill because they were not used to the rainy weather.

In March, Lewis and Clark started back. All the way up the Columbia and through the mountains, the men had to depend on the little food they could buy from the Indians. There was no game to be found, except a few birds. They even ate crows.

When the expedition had started down the Clearwater in the fall, the men had left their horses with the Indians. Now they found that the Indians had taken good care of the horses. For the land trip, the expedition divided. The two leaders took different routes over the mountains, so that they could explore a larger area. They met again on the upper Missouri, where they had

left their boats the year before. They found the boats and had an easy trip downstream to St. Louis.

Lewis and Clark did all they had set out to do. They brought back descriptions of the country. They had made friends with the Indians along the way. They had found a route to the Pacific that followed rivers most of the way, but they had also found that this route could never be very useful. Difficult mountain trails lay between the upper Missouri and the tributaries of the Columbia. No great quantity of goods could be carried over them.

Traders in the Oregon country

Lewis and Clark left the Oregon country in 1806. The next year a fur trader reached the upper Columbia. He was David Thompson, working for the North West Fur Company. Thompson had already explored and mapped many rivers in western Canada. Now he had been sent farther south. During the winter of 1806-1807, Thompson built a trading post called Kootenai House near what is now the eastern boundary of British Columbia. Two years later he built Kullyspell House on Lake Pend d'Oreille, near the mouth of Clark Fork. In the year 1811 Thompson travelled down the Columbia to the ocean. What Thompson found near the mouth of the Columbia is another story. We shall have to go back to New York to get the beginning.

More than twenty years earlier a young man arrived in New York from Germany. His name was John Jacob Astor. First he tried various kinds of work. Then he decided that he could make money in the fur business and began going on long trading trips, buying furs from the Indians in New York

Thompson mapping the Columbia





Thompson arriving at Astoria

state. He did make money—so much that he could go into business on a much larger scale. He began to dream of a fur company that would trade over the whole West.

Astor's Pacific Fur Company was organized in 1810. He planned a trading post near the mouth of the Columbia, with branch posts at various places up the river. He also planned to trade with the Indians along the coast and with Russians farther north. China was the great market for furs. Astor expected to send furs directly from the Columbia to China. To carry out his plans, Astor needed a ship on the Pacific coast. He also needed a land route. He thought that reports and instructions could be carried back and forth more swiftly by land than by water.

Astor's ship, the *Tonquin*, left New York on September 8, 1810. When the ship reached the Columbia, the traders selected a spot for their post near the mouth of the river. You can find it on the map on page 183. The post was called Astoria.

The men were astonished at the huge trees of the forest. They worked hard

for two months to clear an acre of land for the buildings. The buildings were made of logs, and a log palisade was built around the post. Now the Astorians were ready to go to work. Some of them were preparing to go up the river when they saw a large boat coming down. Eight Indians were rowing the boat. A British flag fluttered at the stern. Riding in the boat was David Thompson, of the North West Fur Company. The beginning of an American trading post was what Thompson found at the mouth of the river. The Astorians made Thompson welcome. The traders of the two companies were usually friendly when they met, but this did not keep them from trying to get business away from one another whenever they had the chance.

As soon as possible the ship *Tonquin* started out to trade with the Indians along the coast. It was lost on the coast of Vancouver Island. This left the Astorians without a ship. They were also left with very scanty supplies of food and of goods for trade because the captain of the *Tonquin* had refused to unload them before he sailed. The

traders were discouraged but did the best they could. Some of them travelled up the river. At several places they built small trading posts. A few men stayed at each post to buy furs from the Indians near by.

The land expedition reached Astoria in the middle of the winter. The men had bad luck nearly all the way. They had started from St. Louis more than six months earlier and travelled up the Missouri in boats. Before they reached the Mandan villages, they left the river and traded their boats to the Indians for horses. On horseback they travelled across what is now South Dakota and Wyoming to the Snake River.

There they built fifteen canoes and started down the river. This was a mistake. The river became more and more dangerous. Some of the men explored the river ahead and discovered that boats could not go the rest of the way.

The travellers were now without horses and could not use their canoes.

They buried most of their supplies and started forward on foot. After great hardships they reached the Columbia, nearly starved. The Astorians had expected the land expedition to bring more trade goods. Instead, the travellers had barely got through alive. The goods that had not been lost were buried far away in the valley of the Snake. They had no ship. They were expecting another ship from New York, but it did not arrive until long after it should have reached the Columbia.

With all their troubles, the Astorians were beginning to build up a good business. Then came the War of 1812 with Britain. The Astorians heard that a British warship was on its way to the Columbia. They knew they could not defend their post. They would surely lose all their supplies, trade goods, and the valuable furs they had collected. To save at least part of the value of the property, they sold Astoria to the North West Fur Company.

Settlers, Trappers, and Missionaries Move beyond the Frontier

Problems connected with the boundary between the United States and Canada were settled by a commission appointed after the War of 1812. Some of its members were American, some were British. They did their work well. In 1818 a treaty was signed that is worth remembering. The two countries agreed that the boundary between the United States and Canada should never be fortified. A boundary line was surveyed from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods. The parallel of 49° was made the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

West of the Rocky Mountains was the Oregon country. Both countries agreed

to wait ten years before dividing the Oregon country. In the meantime, traders and settlers from both countries might go there. At the end of ten years the agreement was renewed.

At the time of the treaty with Britain, the only settlements in the Oregon country were trading posts of the North West Fur Company. In 1821 this company sold out to the Hudson's Bay Company. The Hudson's Bay Company sent John McLoughlin to be in charge of the Oregon country. He built Fort Vancouver as headquarters on the north shore of the Columbia opposite the mouth of the Willamette. You will hear more about McLoughlin and his fort.

Another important treaty was drawn up in 1819 and went into effect two years later. This treaty was with Spain. Do you remember how General Andrew Jackson fought the Indians of Florida? You read about it on page 150. Then the United States bought Florida from Spain. Several other agreements were made at the same time.

Spain agreed to give up to the United States all claims to land north of 42°. Whatever claims Spain had to the Oregon country now belonged to the United States. A boundary was drawn between the United States and Spanish lands, from Wyoming to the Gulf of Mexico. You can find the line on the map on pages 136–137. The United States agreed to give up its claims to Texas.

Settlers go to Texas

On page 149 you read about the Great Migration to the Mississippi Valley. You remember that the War of 1812 ended in 1814. As soon as the war was over, thousands of settlers travelled down the Ohio. They moved beyond the frontier in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Many crossed the Mississippi. By 1820 most of eastern Missouri was settled. It became a state in 1821—the first state entirely west of the Mississippi River. In the South cotton planters were moving west into Alabama and Mississippi. And here, too, many settlers crossed the Mississippi. Some moved into Louisiana. Others moved into Arkansas.

Among the early settlers west of the Mississippi were the Austin family, who had come while the land was still Spanish. The father, Moses Austin, had helped to develop the lead mines of Missouri. Then misfortunes came and he lost all his money. He was no longer

a young man, but he was ready to try an entirely new venture.

On a November day in 1820 Moses Austin was riding southward on a gray horse. With him was only one man, a Negro servant riding a mule. Austin had only \$50 in money, and he had borrowed that from his son. Austin was going to ask for a grant of land from the Spanish government in Texas and for permission to bring settlers and lay out farms. He expected to sell the land to the settlers at a price that would pay him for his trouble.

Austin rode southward through the frontier settlements of Louisiana and came to the Spanish outpost of Nacogdoches. The place had been abandoned and the buildings were falling down. On and on he rode along the Old San Antonio Trail. At Goliad he saw the first Spanish settlement. Then there was wild land again until he came to San Antonio. San Antonio was the centre of government for Spanish Texas.

In January, 1821, Moses Austin started home. He had been given permission to bring three hundred families to Texas from the United States. The hardships of the long winter trip were too much for him. He died of pneumonia soon after he reached home. Before he died, he begged his son Stephen to go on with his plan.

Stephen F. Austin is honored as the real founder of Texas. He was twenty-seven years old when his father died in 1821. By August of that year he was in Texas, choosing a place for his colony. He selected a stretch of good land between the Colorado and Brazos rivers. Before the end of the year a few settlers had arrived. Early in the next spring Austin went to San Antonio. He reported proudly to the government that



Early settlers in eastern Texas

a hundred men were at work beside the Colorado, fifty beside the Brazos, all planting corn.

In the meantime Mexico had won its independence from Spain and set up a new government. Austin learned that he would have to go to Mexico for permission to establish a colony. There he waited a whole year. Finally the new Mexican congress approved his plans for bringing Anglo-American settlers to Texas. People from the United States were called Anglo-Americans because they spoke English. Mexicans were called Spanish-Americans because they spoke Spanish.

Later Austin got permission to bring more settlers. In all, more than a thousand families settled in his colonies. A number of other Americans also got grants of land and permission to take settlers to Texas. But none of them were as successful as Austin in starting the new settlements.

At first the pioneers planted only corn. Corn bread and meat were almost the only food the people had. The meat came from wild animals hunted by the men and boys. Later they grew crops like those of the older parts of the South. The first Anglo-Americans lived in eastern Texas, where the land is not very different from land in Alabama or Mis-

issippi. Much of the region was forested and farms had to be cleared. When enough land was ready for use, the settlers raised vegetables and cotton. From the first the Texans kept cattle, as other southern pioneers had done.

On pages 162-163 you read what happened next. At first the Mexican government welcomed the Anglo-Americans

who came to develop the region. Very soon, however, there was trouble.

In 1835 fighting began between the Texans and Mexican soldiers. There were about 30,000 Anglo-Americans in Texas, and only a few Mexicans. Texas had no real army. The fighting was done by little groups of a few hundred men who were farmers, not trained soldiers. Their weapons were mainly their own hunting rifles. The Texans saw that they needed a leader. As commander of all these little armies they chose Sam Houston, who became one of the great heroes of Texas.

At first the Texans were successful everywhere. They drove all the Mexican soldiers across the Rio Grande. Then more Mexican soldiers came to Texas, led by Santa Anna, president of Mexico. The little armies of Texans could not resist them and were driven back everywhere. The Texas settlers left their homes and fled toward the United States boundary.

On page 163 you read about the fight in the Alamo. Other defeats were almost as bad. It looked as if there were no hope for the Texans. They would have to give up Texas. Meanwhile Houston was following Santa Anna. In April, 1836, he caught up at the San Jacinto River. Santa Anna thought the

war was won. He had many more men than the Americans. He thought he could wipe out the Texans whenever he was ready. The two armies camped close together for a day. Then, on April 21, 1836, a little before sundown, Houston attacked. The Mexicans were not expecting attack. Within a few minutes almost the whole Mexican army was killed or captured. Santa Anna was captured and had to agree to order all Mexican soldiers out of Texas.

A short time before, the leading men of Texas had met and declared Texas independent. Now the Texans set up a government modelled on the government of the United States. Many Texans wished to be taken into the United States, but the government would not annex Texas at this time.

The Indian country

While we were following the settlers to Texas, important things were happening farther north. Settlers were pushing westward. Traders and trappers were working beyond the frontier, breaking new trails to the West.

Think back for a moment to the days just after the War of 1812. At that time there were still many Indians east of the Mississippi River. Large areas could not be settled because they still belonged to Indian tribes.

The Indians were forced to agree that they would move west, but the problem was not settled. If the eastern Indians moved, they must move into areas belonging to other tribes. This meant that the eastern Indians could not move until the western Indians agreed. The United States government had to move the Indians, and it had to find a place for them to go.

Leaders in the American government thought American farmers could never make a living on the great grass lands of the West and in the forests to the north. They thought a great many more Indian hunters could live there. Why not move the Indians to these western hunting grounds? This the government planned to do.

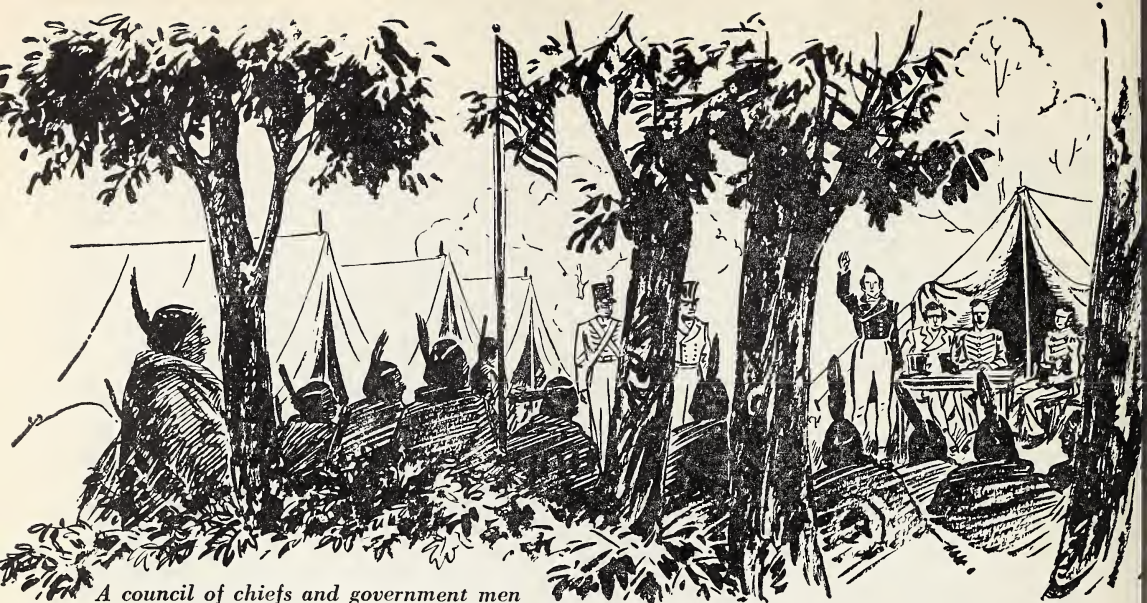
In 1817 the government began a series of forts along the "permanent Indian frontier." This term meant a boundary

In the Indian country









A council of chiefs and government men

line that should always divide the settled lands from the Indian lands. You will find the Indian boundary line and the forts on the map on page 174.

Arrangements with the Indians took a long time. Partly by force, partly by presents, partly by descriptions of the fine new lands, the eastern Indians were persuaded to move. From the forts soldiers went out to call the western Indians together. Some of them were hard to find, for the tribes travelled far over the plains hunting buffalo. Finally all the western tribes were found and were persuaded to send their chiefs to great meetings, called councils.

In the summer of 1825 several great councils were held. The western tribes agreed to move still farther west. The plains were very wide and there were many buffaloes. Agreements were made about the hunting grounds each tribe should have.

The western tribes moved away. They left a wide strip of empty land just west of the Indian boundary line. The United States government divided this land. Each eastern tribe was to have

land according to the number of its people. Then the eastern tribes were brought to their new homes.

The beaver trappers

During the 1820's a number of new fur companies were organized. Nearly all the furs were sold through St. Louis. The principal fur was beaver. Beaver skins were used for coats and trimmings, as we use fur, but it was a style in hats that made the really great demand for beaver. No man thought himself well dressed without a beaver hat. These were tall hats of a beautiful soft felt that was made of beaver fur.

The Rocky Mountain Fur Company was started in 1821. The company was made up of several older men who were experienced in the fur business and several young men who were just starting out. They planned to trap farther west than earlier trappers had gone. The "mountain men" have been famous ever since for their daring and for their share in exploring the West.

One of the young partners of the Rocky Mountain Fur Company was Jim

Bridger. Trapping in the Rocky Mountain region, he learned to know the West as few people knew it in his day. Another young man with the Rocky Mountain Fur Company was Jedediah Smith. He made some of the most remarkable journeys of any of the mountain men. In 1823 Smith, Bridger, and some of the other fur men started west. They followed the Platte River upstream, westward and then northward. They were looking for an easy pass through the Rocky Mountains.

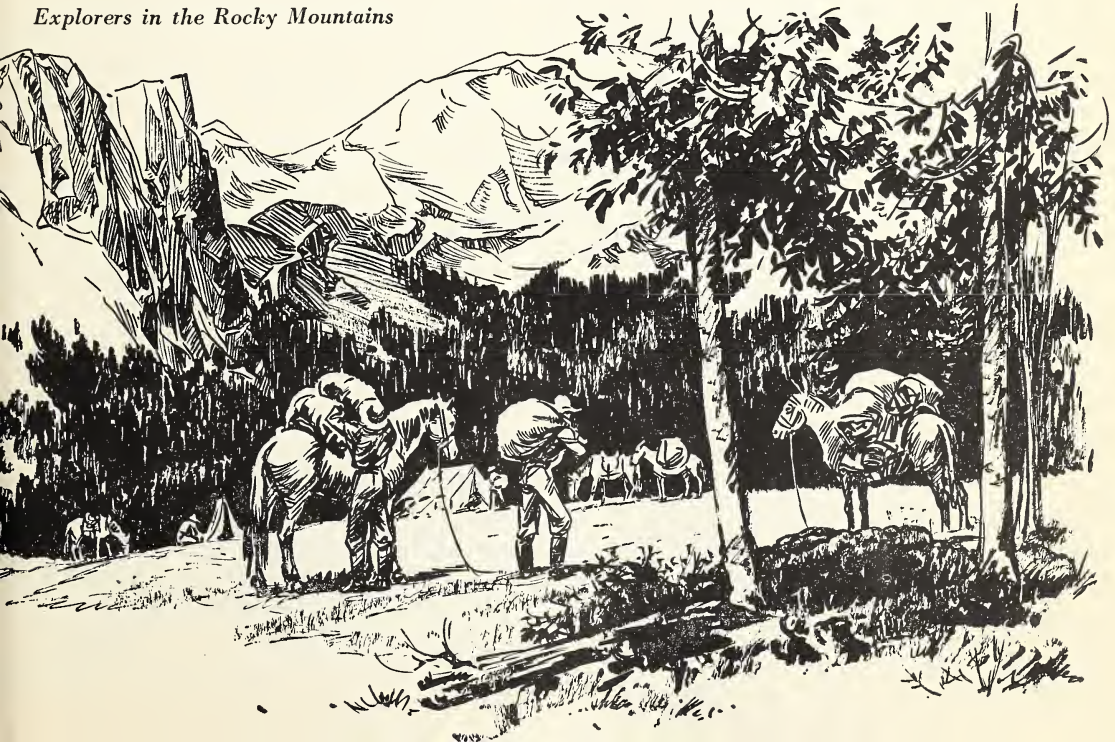
In what is now central Wyoming, the fur men found a tributary flowing from the west, the Sweetwater River. They followed this river upstream and found the pass they wanted. To the north were the high, snow-covered mountains of the Wind River Range. To the south was another range, not quite so high. Between them was an expanse of almost level land. It was the easy pass the fur

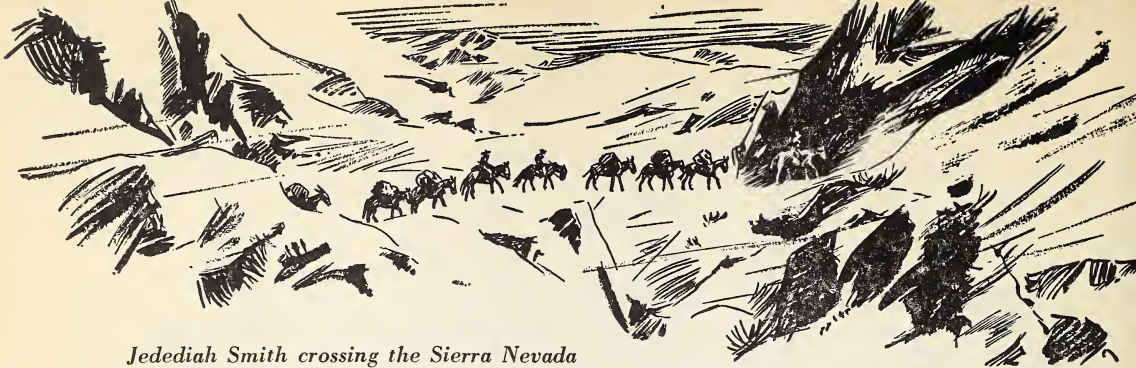
men had dreamed about. You can find it on the map on page 174. It was named South Pass. The route of the fur men became the principal early road to the Far West. It is called the Oregon Trail.

During the next few years the mountain men were busy exploring the mountains. They followed hundreds of little streams where beaver were found. They discovered beautiful mountain meadows that were especially good places for trapping. Though they did not know it, these explorers were preparing the way for settlers who would soon follow their trails west.

In 1826 Smith was trapping in what is now western Wyoming. He decided to explore new trapping grounds to the southwest. With a party of seventeen men he followed the route shown on the map on page 174. Most of the way he travelled over completely unknown land.

Explorers in the Rocky Mountains





Jedediah Smith crossing the Sierra Nevada

Smith and his men had left Great Salt Lake in August. In November they reached the San Gabriel Mission in California. They were tired and hungry. Their clothes were worn out. But they had made a trip no one had ever made before. At San Gabriel the friars gave the Americans a friendly welcome. The trappers stayed at the mission for six weeks. The friars gave them food and even new clothes.

Smith wrote to the governor at San Diego. He asked permission to travel northward through California. The governor ordered him to leave California as quickly as possible by the way he had come. Smith bought fresh horses at the mission and started east. Once he had crossed the first range of mountains, he was out of touch with the Mexican officials. There were still no settlements except along the coast. Smith and his men did not go east as they had promised. They turned north into the San Joaquin Valley.

All winter the Americans trapped beaver on the streams flowing down from the Sierras. They moved slowly northward with the high, snowy mountains to the east. In the spring Smith decided to leave most of his men in the valley. They were to trap beaver until he came back for them. With two men, seven horses, and two mules Smith started across the Sierras. The snow was several feet deep but was so solidly

packed that the animals could walk on top of it. As far as we know, this is the first time anyone had ever crossed the Sierra Nevada.

Beyond the mountains, the three men found a wide stretch of desert. They had to wade through deep sand. Water was hard to find. They were very hungry, but they were able to shoot a few antelope, deer, and rabbits. At last they came safely to Great Salt Lake and soon found their friends. Smith rested only ten days. Then he started back to California with eighteen men. This time they had trouble nearly all the way. On the Colorado River, Indians attacked them and killed ten of the Americans. Smith got away safely with the other eight, but most of the supplies were left behind. The friars at the San Gabriel Mission were not so friendly as they had been the first time, but they gave Smith a few supplies.

Smith hurried down the San Joaquin Valley to find the trappers he had left there. He found that they had many beaver skins but were almost out of supplies. Smith knew that the Spaniards would not be pleased to see him, but he had to have supplies. He went to Monterey. The Spaniards were not pleased to see him. They put him in jail and decided to send him to Mexico for trial. He was saved by the captains of several trading ships in the harbor. They persuaded the officials to let Smith

go and permit him to buy supplies. Smith went back to his men and they started north by the Sacramento Valley.

At last they reached the end of the valley. They struggled through the mountains into what is now southern Oregon. Early on a July morning Smith started out first. He was looking for a route his men could follow that day. After he left, Indians attacked the camp. Two men escaped and found Smith. The Indians killed all the rest and took all the furs.

Smith and the two men kept on to the north. At last they reached the headquarters of the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver. There they found John McLoughlin in charge. You met him on page 188. McLoughlin sent some of his own men to try to get the furs back from the Indians. They got nearly all and McLoughlin bought them. Smith stayed at Fort Vancouver all winter. In the spring he travelled east with a Hudson's Bay brigade and so got back to his friends.

We cannot follow the stories of all the famous trappers and traders. Some of

them wrote the stories of their own experiences. These are fascinating stories. If your library has any of them, you will enjoy reading them.

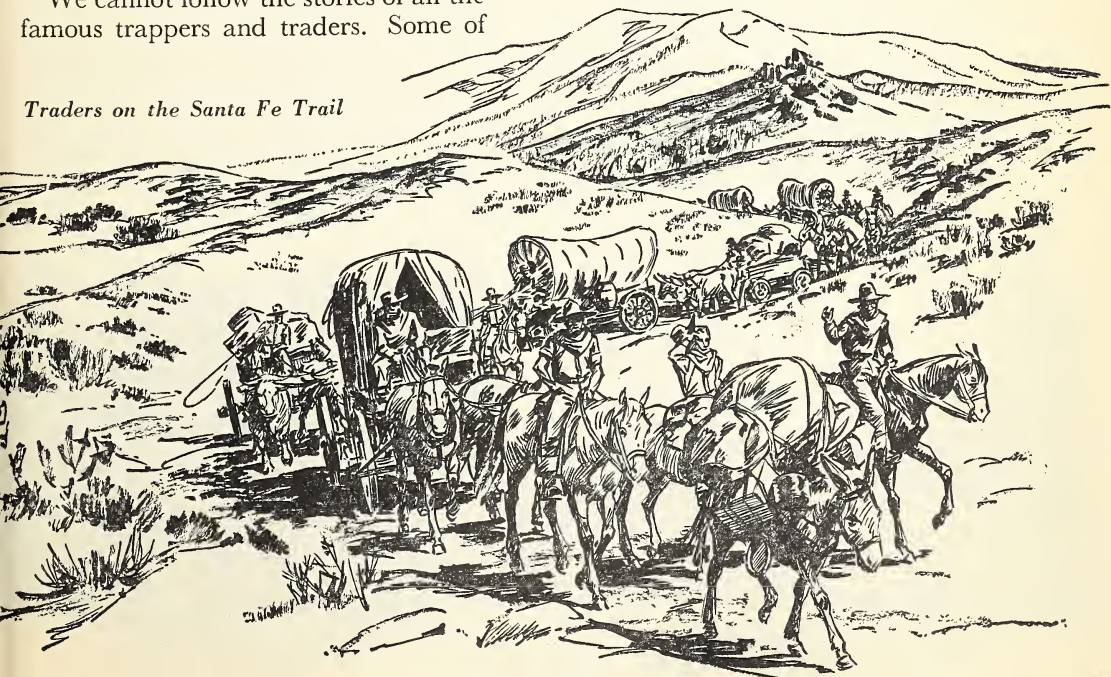
Trails to the Southwest

Farther south, traders were opening up a trail across the West. Turn to the map on page 174 and find the Santa Fe Trail. Do you remember the old Spanish settlement at Santa Fe? There were settlements all the way down the valley of the Rio Grande past El Paso.

Soon after 1820, American traders began going to Santa Fe. The traders travelled in long trains of large Conestoga wagons. They carried American manufactured goods west. Coming back, the wagons carried buffalo hides, furs, and bars of silver and gold from the Mexican mines.

Kit Carson, one of the most famous of early westerners, got his start working for a trader on the Santa Fe Trail. Although he was only seventeen, being

Traders on the Santa Fe Trail



a Santa Fe trader was not exciting enough for Kit. He was soon out beyond the trails with the trappers. When Kit was nineteen he was on his way west with a company of trappers. From Taos, New Mexico, they found a new route to California. This route soon became another important traders' trail. Your map calls it the Old Spanish Trail.

Westward from Santa Fe, traders carried manufactured goods and silver. The manufactured goods were some of those that had been brought from the United States over the Santa Fe Trail. Pack animals rather than wagons were used on this trail. Eastward from California the traders drove great herds of horses and mules that had been raised on the ranches of California. In Santa Fe they were sold to the American traders, to be used on the Santa Fe Trail. Silks from China were also carried east from California. At Santa Fe most of the silk was sold to American traders and taken to Missouri in wagons on the Santa Fe Trail.

Beyond the Indian boundary line

By 1836 there were signs of changes in the West. But as yet no one could possibly have dreamed how fast the changes were to come. The resources of the West were as yet undiscovered.

Already there were signs that the Indian boundary line would not last forever. The first break had come four years earlier. Settlers had moved into the land that is now eastern Iowa. The Indians tried to drive them out. Fighting followed, called the Black Hawk War. Of course the Indians were beaten. They had to give up their land, and settlers poured in. Within a few years southern Wisconsin, southeastern Minnesota, eastern Iowa, and western Missouri were settled.

Changes on the Pacific coast

Out in the Oregon country, also, changes were taking place. The first change might have seemed very small. The Hudson's Bay Company governor, John McLoughlin, wanted the men who worked for him to have fresh vegetables. He also wanted to find work for men who were no longer able to go out on the long, hard trapping and trading trips. It was generally believed that the Oregon country was not good for farming. McLoughlin did not believe it. He picked out a spot in the Willamette Valley near Fort Vancouver. There he put his retired trappers to work farming.

By 1836 there were two American missions in Oregon. The first missionary to reach Oregon, in 1834, was Jason Lee,

Early farming in the Oregon country

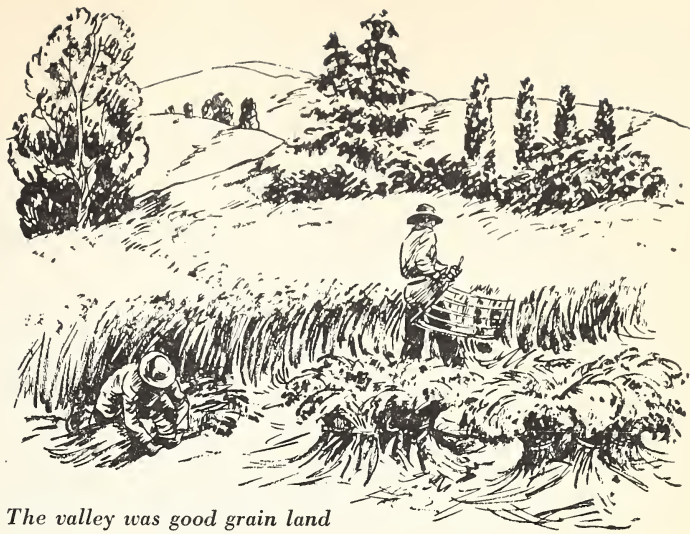


from the Methodist church. He founded his mission near the retired trappers in the Willamette Valley. In 1836 a party of Congregational missionaries arrived. At the head of the mission was Dr. Marcus Whitman. With Whitman were another missionary, Henry H. Spalding, and Mrs. Whitman and Mrs. Spalding. They were the first women who went overland to the Pacific coast.

Changes were taking place in California, too. You remember that the Mexican government did not want people from other countries in California. By 1836, however, a few settlers were allowed to come in. One of the most remarkable men of early California days arrived in 1839. He was John Augustus Sutter, from Switzerland. Sutter chose a location on the Sacramento River, and the governor gave him land for a huge ranch.

Soon after Sutter came to California the Russians decided to leave Fort Ross. Sutter bought from them everything that could be moved. He got household equipment, farm tools, herds of cattle and horses, a large river boat, and more than forty cannon. Around his ranch houses and workshops Sutter built an adobe wall eighteen feet high and three feet thick.

Sutter first raised horses and cattle. Then he built an irrigation system and began to farm. Soon he discovered that the valley was good grain land. He raised great fields of wheat and built a mill to grind it. He built a tannery to make leather from the hides of his animals. Finally he went into the fur trade, sending his own trappers and traders out over northern California.



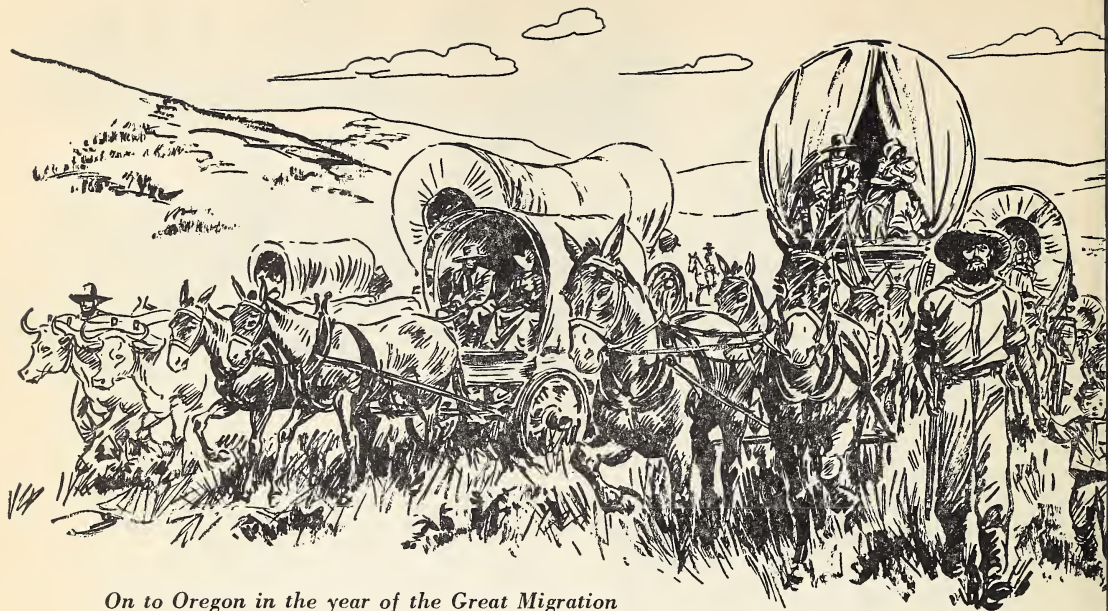
The valley was good grain land

Wagon trains move west

The year 1841 is one to be remembered on the west coast. That was the year of the first emigrant train over the Oregon Trail. A western emigrant train was not a railroad train. It was made up of a large number of covered wagons travelling together.

There were sixty-nine people in the party—men, women, and children. They had eight wagons pulled by horses and mules, five wagons pulled by oxen. None of the emigrants had been over the trail before. None knew the way. They were fortunate, though, for they found a group of Roman Catholic missionaries ready to go to Oregon. One of the missionaries was Father de Smet, who was an experienced traveller. There were three trappers who served as guides. The missionaries added four carts and one wagon to the train.

The wagon train started from Independence, Missouri, in the middle of May. Early in July the emigrants went through South Pass and came to Soda Springs. Here carbonated water flowed out of the earth—water that bubbled like a glass of ginger ale. Thirsty travellers found it very refreshing.



On to Oregon in the year of the Great Migration

At Soda Springs the missionaries and trappers planned to leave the emigrants. They were going to Oregon. The emigrants were going to California. They did not know the way. No accurate map had ever been drawn of the region they must cross. There was no trail. It is no wonder that half the party decided to stay in Oregon. Those who went on to California were all men except two, one woman and one girl.

The travellers stopped at a Hudson's Bay Company post, but none of the trappers had ever gone the way the travellers were going. They knew only that there were mountains and deserts. The emigrants had to depend upon themselves.

They travelled southward to Great Salt Lake and then westward across a desert, where there was little grass for the animals and little water to drink. In September they reached the foot of the Sierras. There they camped for three weeks while the men looked for a

pass. They found one, but they were sure they could not get the wagons through. They left the wagons and packed all their supplies on the horses and mules.

The emigrants were lucky. In some years as late in the fall as this the pass would have been buried in snow. But winter came late in 1841. Worn out and almost starved, the travellers reached the settled lands of California in November. Some bought land to farm, some found other work.

The emigrants who went to Oregon also arrived safely. Their journey was easier because they had guides all the way. They became farmers in the Willamette Valley.

Another party of twenty-five Americans reached southern California in the same year. They had intended to travel with the emigrant train over the Oregon Trail, but they reached Independence too late. They joined a group of traders on the Santa Fe Trail. From Santa Fe



they went with other traders over the Spanish Trail to California.

In 1842 a young army officer, John C. Frémont, was sent west with an exploring expedition. He was to explore the Oregon Trail as far as Soda Springs. Kit Carson went with him as guide. The next year Frémont went on an even longer journey, reaching Fort Vancouver. There he bought supplies and travelled south into California.

Frémont made the West known to the people of the United States. He wrote enthusiastic descriptions of the country. Many people read them.

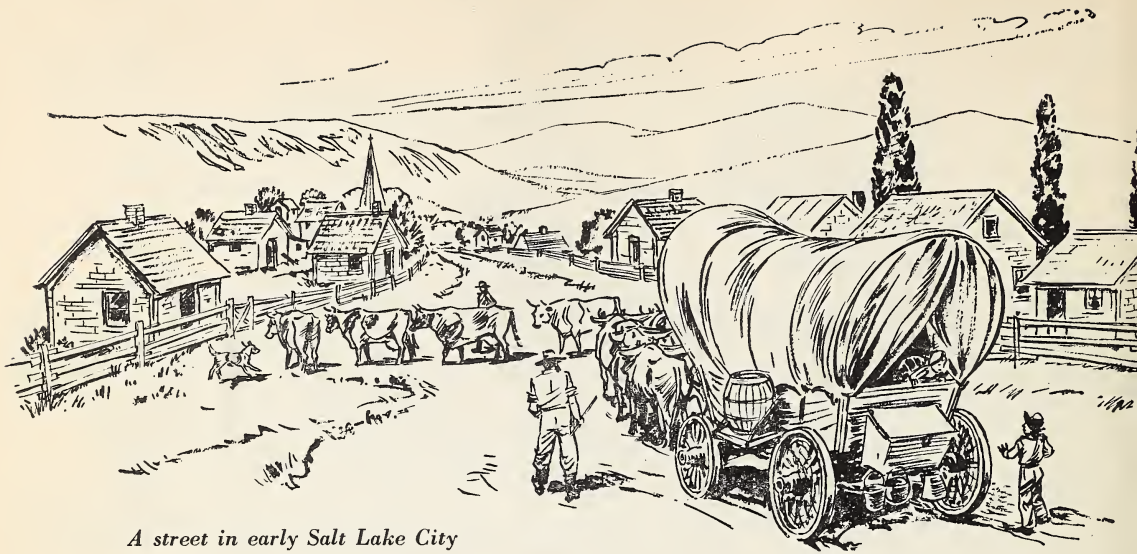
The year 1843 is called the year of the Great Migration. In that year about two thousand people moved to Oregon. A few settlers went to California in the same year. They were not many, compared with those who went to Oregon, but the number was larger than in any earlier year.

Back on the old frontier another large group of people was preparing to move

west. These were the Mormons. You read about them on page 162. They had been living in a community called Nauvoo, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi in Illinois.

Early in February, 1846, the Mormons began crossing the Mississippi River. All the following summer the Mormons struggled across Iowa. They finally built a camp where Council Bluffs is now. They planted crops and worked for the settlers when they could. Other Mormons kept arriving. Some had not been able to leave the Nauvoo neighborhood with the rest. The number at the settlement, called Winter Quarters, continued to grow.

Early in the spring of 1847 the Mormon leader, Brigham Young, started west with about one hundred fifty of the strongest and bravest of his people. They followed the general route of the Oregon Trail but did not travel exactly the same road. They did not want to have trouble with the other emigrants.



A street in early Salt Lake City

Other groups of Mormons were to follow the first group as fast as possible.

From South Pass the Mormons turned to the southwest. They followed a narrow, difficult canyon through the Wasatch Mountains. On the western side of the mountains they looked out over a plain with Great Salt Lake shining in the distance. Brigham Young is said to have announced, "This is the place." The little group went to work at once. They dug irrigation canals and planted crops. They built houses. All summer more and more Mormons kept coming. Some came in covered wagons. Some walked all the way, pushing carts and wheelbarrows.

The Mormons soon prospered in Utah. Within a few years they had good farms on irrigated land. They had started Salt Lake City, and groups had gone out to found other communities.

New lands for the United States

You remember that Texas became an independent country in 1836. From the beginning Texas wished to be taken into the United States as a state. Finally, in

1845, Texas was annexed. Everyone knew this would probably mean trouble with Mexico. The Mexicans had hoped to get Texas back some day. They knew this would never be possible if Texas was part of the United States.

There was trouble in California, too. Several times the people of California had rebelled against the Mexican government. Now there were many Americans in California. They joined with the discontented Spanish people to oppose the Mexican government. In 1845 the Mexican governor and officials were forced to leave California.

In 1846 war began between the United States and Mexico. There was fighting in Texas and California. Then United States armies invaded Mexico and won a number of victories. Finally they took Mexico City, and the Mexican armies surrendered. At the end of the war the United States annexed the whole Southwest, from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean.

As you know, the ownership of the Oregon country had never been decided. Many people in Britain and Canada

thought the Columbia River should be the boundary. Many people in the United States thought the boundary should be a line running eastward from the southern tip of Alaska. In 1846 the United States and British governments agreed to divide the land that both claimed. The forty-ninth parallel was to be the boundary westward to the coast. As you know, the forty-ninth parallel was already the boundary east of the Rocky Mountains.

The treaty with Britain settling the northwestern boundary was signed in 1846. The treaty that ended the Mexican War was signed in 1848. Except for one small area in the Southwest, continental United States was as large in 1848 as it is today. Continental United States means the land that lies in one unbroken stretch across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It does not include Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and other separate areas.

Gold in California

There was still only a small population in California. Then something happened to bring people to California by the thousands. It was a January day in 1848. On land that belonged to John Sutter a group of men were building a sawmill. They were also building a dam across the American River, a tributary of the Sacramento. A young man named James Marshall was in charge of the work.

Marshall and his men dammed the stream. Early one morning Marshall went out to inspect the work to see whether the channel was deep enough. As he looked into the stream, he saw a number of shining bits of yellow. He picked up the yellow pebbles and showed them to the other men. They

could not believe it was really gold. Marshall took his pebbles to Sutter. They tried a simple test with chemicals. The pebbles were gold.

When news of this discovery reached the eastern United States, it caused great excitement. By the spring of 1849 thousands of people were gathered along the frontier in Missouri. They were anxiously waiting for grass to begin to grow on the plains so that their animals would have something to eat. Soon wagon trains were stretched far out along the Oregon Trail.

The distance by way of the Oregon Trail was more than two thousand miles. For a wagon pulled by oxen, fifteen to twenty miles was a very good day's journey. Mules could travel a little faster. When the road was easy and everything went well, they might make twenty-five or even thirty miles. Things seldom did go well, however. The trip usually took from four to six months.

The gold seekers did not all reach California in covered wagons. Ships from all over the world headed for San Francisco Bay. From Europe, South America, Australia, and China, men came to look for gold. Many came by ship from the eastern United States, too. Some travelled all the way around South America. Others sailed to the Isthmus of Panama. They crossed the Isthmus, part of the way by canoe and the rest of the way on muleback. Then they took another ship to California.

No matter how a traveller went to California, he had to face many perils on the way. When he reached California, his troubles were not over. He still had to choose a place to mine, and he might make a poor choice. Only a few found a fortune there. A few found no gold at all. Most of the gold seekers



*Ships of the gold seekers
in the harbor at San Francisco*

made about as much as they could have made working at home.

On the whole, the people who made the most money from the gold rush were those who did not mine. High prices were paid for food and all supplies. Men who started stores and restaurants usually made more money than most of the miners did.

In 1848, when James Marshall discovered gold, there were only a few people in California. Two years later California had enough people to become a state. From that time on the growth of the region was rapid. Many people who came in the gold rush stayed to become farmers or merchants.

The Whitman massacre

In the Oregon country most of the settlers still lived west of the Cascades. Between the Cascades and the Rocky Mountains there were only a few missions and trading posts in a land of

many Indians. The Whitman mission was still there. Do you recall the picture of the Oregon-country mission on page 162?

Many emigrants stopped at the mission for help. They could get food there. They could repair their wagons. They could get care if they were ill or hurt. Whitman was a doctor, and Mrs. Whitman was skilful in caring for the sick.

The Indians came to Dr. Whitman for help when they were sick. Often he was able to heal them. The Indians did not understand that his cures were made by the use of science. They thought he used magic, as their own medicine men claimed to do. Since he was more often successful, they thought he must have stronger magic.

There was much to worry the Indians in the 1840's. Thousands of settlers were crossing their hunting grounds. The missionaries wanted them to live a different life from the life they had

known. Then in 1847 an epidemic of measles broke out. We do not think of measles as a very serious disease. But when an epidemic starts among people who have never had the disease it is very serious indeed. The Indians thought Dr. Whitman could surely have stopped the disease if he had tried. Perhaps he had even caused it by his powerful magic!

One day a band of Indians appeared at the mission. They killed Dr. Whitman, Mrs. Whitman, and some of the other people who were staying there. The rest of the people were taken captive by the Indians.

Hudson's Bay men came to the rescue. The settlers west of the Cascades prepared to send soldiers to rescue the captives. John McLoughlin, of the Hud-

son's Bay Company, asked them to wait. He knew that in an Indian war the captives would be killed before they could be rescued. He sent Peter Skene Ogden and sixteen boatmen with a large quantity of trade goods.

Ogden met the Indians and explained that he had come to ransom the captives. He told them truthfully that he could not keep the settlers from punishing them. He could only give them the goods he had brought. The Indians would be better off if they took the goods and gave him the captives. The Indians agreed and made the exchange. In the meantime the settlers were raising an army. The little army defeated the Indians. They drove away the tribe that had attacked the mission.

The Last Frontier of Settlement in the West

In the 1850's, then, we see settlements all along the Pacific coast. Farmers are developing the land and finding out the best crops. Other industries are beginning. In Utah the Mormons are irrigating the dry lands wherever there is water to be had. To the south there are farm lands and towns in New Mexico and Texas. Between the settled lands still lies the Indian country. This is still a great grass-covered hunting ground, feeding countless buffaloes. Following the great herds of buffalo are Indians belonging to what government reports called the "wild tribes." That is a way of saying that the government of the United States did not control these tribes.

In 1851 the Indians were called to another great council at Fort Laramie. The government wanted to build army posts in the Indian country and lay out roads across it. The Indians had to

agree to this. They were given a little money in return for the land.

Settlers were already going beyond the frontier into the Indian country. In 1853 the Indians had to sign more treaties. They agreed to give up some of their lands just beyond the old frontier. They moved farther west or crowded into small areas called reservations, which were set aside for them by the United States government. By this time there was another reason for moving the Indians. The reason was the growth of railroad building.

Trails and railroads

On pages 160-161 you read about the beginning of railroads in the United States. At first short, separate lines were built. They ran between a few eastern cities. They connected one canal or river with another. They ran from a seaport into the country.

Settlement of the Great West

During the 1840's many of those short roads were joined together. In the 1850's a great many new lines were built, and a few lines crossed the Mississippi. People began talking about a line to the Pacific coast. The Congress voted money for exploring parties to find a good route. Five routes were explored. The southernmost ran across Texas and down the valley of the Gila River to southern California. The valley of the Gila still belonged to Mexico. In 1853 the United States bought it from Mexico. The area was called the Gadsden Purchase and was the last bit of land added to the continental United States.

Several other railroads were built before work really began on the one to the Pacific. Some extended westward toward the Indian country. The growth of railroads soon meant the end of the

Indian boundary line. In 1854 the Indians were forced to give up their lands west of Missouri and Iowa. These lands were divided into the territories of Kansas and Nebraska.

On September 9, 1850, the Congress in Washington voted to admit California as a state. The news did not reach San Francisco until October 18. No wonder the people of the west coast felt cut off from the rest of the country! They wanted to get news more quickly.

First the Congress approved a stagecoach route to the West. It was to carry mail and passengers. The stage line crossed Texas to El Paso and continued west to Yuma, Arizona, and then to southern California and northward to San Francisco. The trip took about twenty-five days. In 1861 the War between the States began. The stagecoach

A stage on the Overland Trail





Gold prospectors in Colorado

and mail line was changed to the more northern road along the Platte River, by way of Salt Lake City, and through the Sierras. The route was called the Overland Trail. It is shown on the map on pages 192-193.

New discoveries of metal ores were helping to open up the West during the 1850's. Prospectors were working in many places in the mountains. Gold was discovered on the eastern slopes of the Sierras, in the Northwest, and in the Rocky Mountains. There was a gold rush to Colorado, where the ore was found in the mountains west of Denver. In Nevada the Comstock Lode was discovered, one of the richest silver deposits in the world.

Prospecting and mining went on while the North and the South were fighting the War between the States. Railroad building nearly stopped. Supplies were hauled to the mining centres in huge freight wagons. Stagecoaches carried gold and passengers.

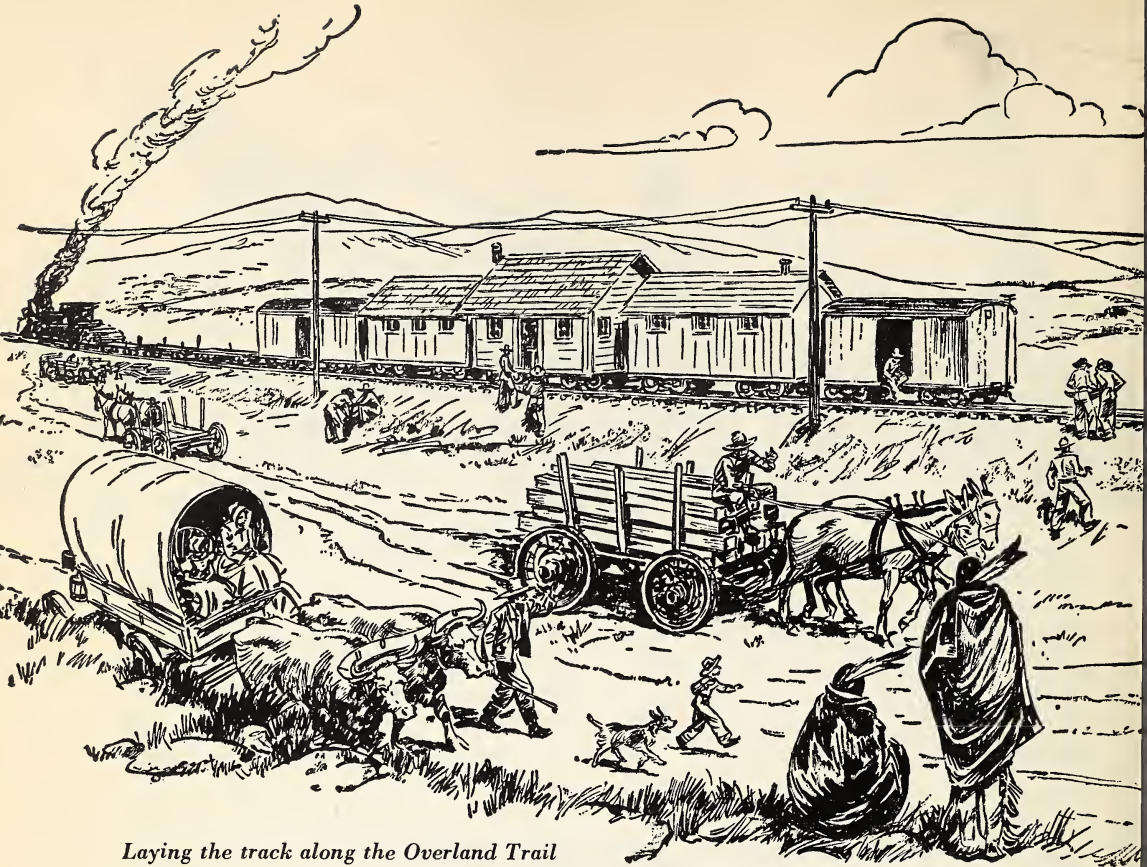
The times were exciting. People on the west coast wanted news. They wanted it faster than lumbering stagecoaches could bring it to them. Then

another kind of mail route was started, the pony express. The first pony-express riders started out on April 3, 1860. The route from St. Louis to Sacramento was about two thousand miles long, and the time for a letter to be carried the whole way was about ten days. This was probably the fastest time ever made by horse-back riders on regular trips over so long a route.

There were eighty riders. Each man rode thirty miles. The horses were changed every ten miles. Along the route were 190 stations, where horses and riders could rest between runs. The pony express followed the Overland Trail, the road of the stagecoaches.

Letters and small packages were carried in leather saddlebags hung on either side of the horse. When a rider dashed into a station, he found a fresh horse saddled and ready to go. The station men were unbuckling the saddlebags almost before the tired horse had stopped. They threw the bags onto the fresh horse, and the rider mounted and was gone.

The pony express lasted only eighteen months. The telegraph had been



Laying the track along the Overland Trail

invented about twenty-five years earlier. Lines had spread rapidly over the East. On the fourth of July, 1861, work began on a line to California. Many crews worked at setting up poles and stringing wires. The line was finished in a little more than three months. Then the pony express was given up. The ten days of the pony-express riders already seemed very slow.

The War between the States ended and the country was ready to begin growing again. One of the first tasks was the building of a railroad to the west coast. The Overland Trail was chosen for the road—the route of the stagecoaches, the telegraph line, and the pony express. Work was to start at each end and go on until the two lines met.

The western end was called the Central Pacific. The eastern end was called the Union Pacific.

The camp of the railroad workers was like a busy town. Hundreds of men lived in it. Each morning a work train carried them to the end of the line. Out ahead of the rails crews of workmen levelled the roadbed. They cut down hills and filled in low places. Other crews laid the ties in place and spiked the rails down. At night a train brought the workmen back. This went on until about forty or fifty miles of road had been built beyond the camp. Then work on the railroad stopped for a day. All the men were busy moving camp. By night a new town had been set up at the end of the line. Then another



section of railroad was built and camp was moved again.

On May 10, 1869, the two lines met. They met at Promontory Point, fifty-three miles west of Ogden, Utah. There was a great celebration. All the workmen gathered round, with many visitors from California and the East. Trains came up slowly on each line, whistles blowing and bells clanging. The locomotives stopped only a few feet apart. High-ranking officials of the railroads arrived on the two trains. They drove the last spike that joined the two lines. This spike was made of gold.

All over the country people celebrated with speeches and ringing bells. The East and the West were joined together at last. Only twenty years earlier the

forty-niners had crept westward in their slow ox wagons. As they plodded along month after month, hungry, thirsty, tired, often sick, they could hardly have imagined that a railroad would ever come this way.

Cowboys and farmers

Another twenty years brought to an end the "Wild West"—the West of trappers, wandering Indians, and great herds of buffalo. The changes were brought about largely by the railroads.

In Texas great herds of cattle grazed beyond the frontier of farm settlement. The men who looked after the Texas cattle in the early days were the first American cowboys. There had been men herding cattle on horseback in Mexico for a long

time. The Texas cowboy used the same kind of equipment. Usually he kept the Spanish names for the things he used. That is why his rope is a lariat, his wide hat is a sombrero, the leather shields for his legs are chaparejos, or chaps, and a spotted horse is a pinto.

In the late 1860's a railroad was being built westward from Kansas City to Denver. A Texas cattleman thought of driving a herd of cattle north to the railroad. There the animals could be loaded on freight cars and sent east. Within a few years thousands of cattle were going north on the "long drive." A drive was made up of cattle from a number of different ranches. Usually there were about three thousand cattle in a herd. The cowboys rode at either side of the herd, a little distance away. One cowboy rode behind the herd to keep the stragglers moving. Back of this "tail rider" came the "remuda," or the herd of spare horses. One man was responsible for these horses.

Last of all came the chuck wagon. It was pulled by four horses or mules. The cook drove them. The wagon was loaded with food, cooking utensils, dishes, extra clothes, and everything that might be needed on the trail.

The cowboys guarded the cattle all night. They worked in shifts so that all the men could sleep part of the night. Slowly the night herders rode round the cattle, singing as they rode. The cattle were not so easily frightened when they heard the cowboys' voices. The cowboys sang all the songs they could remember, and often they made up new ones. Many of the cowboy songs we hear on the radio were made up by cowboys riding herd at night.

The grass lands stretch north from Texas into Canada. About 1870, cattle-

men began moving into the more northern grass lands. At first the cattlemen did not make their homes in the north. They sent cowboys north with the herds. The cattle drifted along, growing fat on the nourishing grass. Some of them were a year on the way and travelled as far as the Canadian boundary. When the cattle were fat, the cowboys took them to the nearest railroad and shipped them east.

Then cattlemen began living on the plains in the northern part of the United States. Soon the grass lands were filled with cattle ranches. The land belonged to the government. It was called the open range and could be used by anyone as grazing land. Usually the cattle were rounded up twice a year. The spring roundup was mainly for the purpose of branding calves. Each animal was branded with its owner's mark, or brand, burned on the skin.

On the open range cattle from one ranch often strayed into the herd of another rancher. At roundup time the cattle were driven together in one place. Those that belonged to another owner were sorted out and returned. Calves were branded. Then the animals again scattered over the range.

In the fall the cattle were usually rounded up again. This time the roundup was for the purpose of picking out animals that were ready for market. The cowboys gathered these in a herd and drove them to the nearest railroad.

The grass lands, lying between the farm lands of the East and the farm and mining lands of the Far West, were the last frontier. Railroads crossed them before the cattlemen came.

It is this last frontier that you generally see pictured in western movies. In spite of the railroads, it was still wild



and untamed. It was a vast area. Most of it was still far from the few railroad lines. Stagecoaches still rattled over rough roads for hundreds of miles. Huge freight wagons creaked along with supplies for ranches and mining camps.

The land that had belonged to the Indians now belonged to hard-riding cowboys and great herds of long-horned cattle. They were not to keep it long. Twenty years seems like a long time to you. In the lifetime of a man or woman, it seems short; but the West of the open range lasted only about that long.

Farmers were following the railroads. Farmers had once thought that the grass lands were worthless to them. Now they discovered that the midwestern grass lands were some of the best wheat country in the world. The wheat farmers needed railroads. It did not pay to grow wheat if it had to be hauled many miles in wagons.

Along the railroad lines the wheat farmers pushed westward. The knowledge that the prairies were good wheat land encouraged the building of more railroads, and the railroads brought more farmers. In 1870 farmers were already pouring into Kansas. A little later they filled up the eastern part of Nebraska and the Dakotas.

As the farmers filled the prairies, the land of tall grass, the cattlemen were

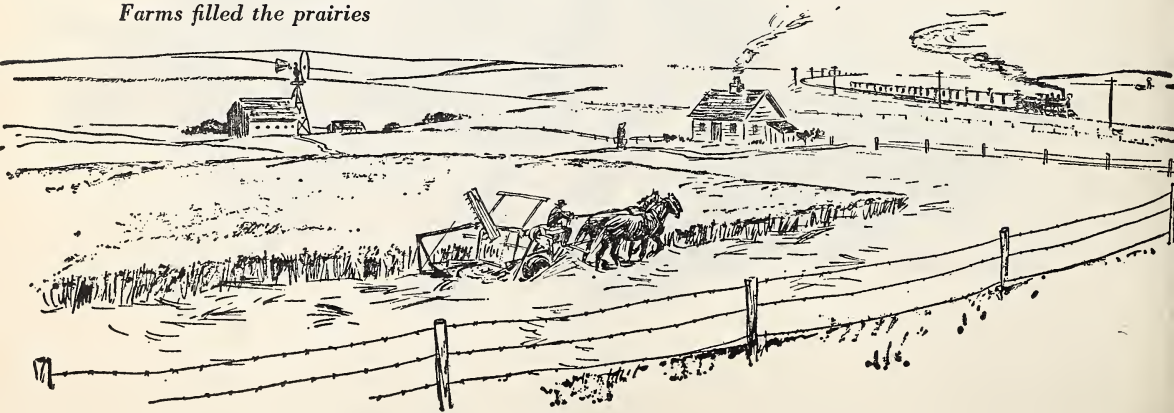
pushed west. They did not want to give up the better range land, but they could not help it. They did not own the land. It belonged to the government. The government gave it to people who wanted to farm it. The farmers built fences around their land to keep the cattle out. They chose for farms the land along the streams and around water holes. With water from the streams they irrigated part of their fields. Thus the land fenced in by the farmers was the land most needed by the cattlemen. They needed the water for their cattle to drink. The best grazing land was along the streams. Without the streams and water holes, cattle could not live on what was left of the open range.

There are still cattle ranches and cowboys in the western United States, but there is no open range. The ranchers own their land and keep their cattle inside their own fences. Only the drier, poorer land is left for the great ranches.

The cattle are better now. The lean longhorns are gone. Heavier, stockier breeds graze in their places. Living is much easier in the West than it was in the rough days of the frontier, but it is true that, along with the open range, some of the romance is gone.

The last of the Indian country was opened to settlement in 1889—the last area in which Indians did not have to

Farms filled the prairies

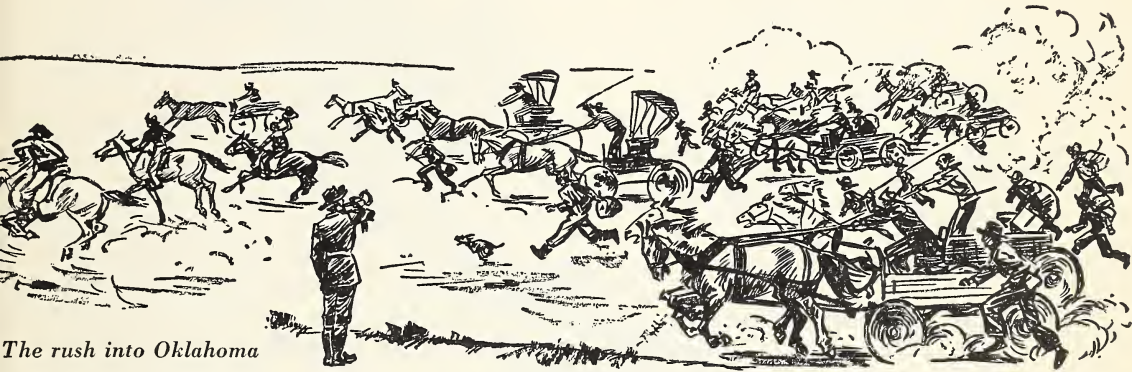


live on reservations. This was Indian Territory, now the state of Oklahoma. Settlers were crowded along the boundary, waiting for the exact hour when the government said they might enter. They dashed in on horseback, in buggies, on foot, to choose land for farms.

By 1890 all the Indians lived on reservations. Nearly all the good farm land was settled by farmers. Very little of

the open range was left. For this reason 1890 is the date usually given for the closing of the frontier—the closing of the gap between the settled lands of the East and the settled lands of the Far West.

Here ends the story of the settlement of the United States. It has been a story of frontiers, and now there are no more frontiers in the great stretches between the Atlantic and the Pacific.



The rush into Oklahoma

The History Workshop

What do you think are the most important or the most interesting events in the history of the western United States? So many things happened that it may be hard to agree. Some of these happenings had more effect upon the history of Canada than others. You may have an interesting class discussion about which events these were.

A new kind of time chart

Your time charts are now becoming rather crowded. You have just read about settlement of the West in the United States. The period of time covered was from 1540 to 1890. You may, if you wish, select the most important events and add them to the time charts you have already made. You may not have left enough space on your time charts to do this.

You may make a new kind of time chart for the settlement of the West. Turn back to the time chart on page 173. It shows only events you already knew about before you started this special study of the West. You may make one like this for the events described in this section.

The chart on page 173 uses the left-hand column for events in the West and the right-hand column for events in eastern United States. When you make your chart, you should use the left-hand column for the events that you think are most important in the history of western United States. Use the right-hand column for events in Canada and the rest of the world.

Our last list of important world events is on the next page. You may need to refer back to it later.

The history of the world

1899—The Boer War.
1901—Queen Victoria dies.
1903—First airplane flight.
1904—Russo-Japanese War.
1909—Panama Canal is opened.
1914—First World War begins.
1917—Revolution in Russia.
1918—Germany surrenders, November 11.
1920—The League of Nations.
1929—World-wide depression begins.
1934—Hitler rises to power.
1939—Second World War begins.
1940—The Battle of Britain.
1941—Pearl Harbor is attacked.
1941—The Atlantic Charter.
1944—D Day in Normandy, June 6.
1945—The Atomic Bomb is dropped.
1945—United Nations Charter.
1947—Independence for India.
1949—Nato is founded.
1950—Korean War begins.

Your community history

You have just read that by 1890 there was no more frontier in the continental United States. There must have been people living in your neighborhood by that time. Your community may already have been old, or it may have been new. That depends on where you live.

You can probably find older people in your community who have lived there all their lives. Ask them to tell you about the community as it was in 1890. Your newspaper office may have files of newspapers going back to 1890. You will enjoy reading them. Many people have old photographs taken before 1890. Perhaps you can borrow some of them for an exhibit. If you do, be sure to take very good care of them.

If you live in the West, this is the time to give special attention to your community study. Did any of the people mentioned in this book pass through your neighborhood? Did any of the groups of settlers you have read about settle in your own region? Are

any of the famous old trails near it? Collect stories about the early days of your region and learn to tell them well. When you travel in other parts of the country, you will meet people who like to hear the stories of the early days.

How were they alike?

In what ways were the people in each of the following groups alike?

1. Cabrillo, Vizcaíno, Cermenho.
2. Junípero Serra, Jason Lee, Father de Smet.
3. Mackenzie, Fraser, Thompson, Lewis, Clark.
4. Jim Bridger, Kit Carson, Jedediah Smith.
5. John Jacob Astor, Alexander Baranof, John McLoughlin.

Of what do they remind you?

You should know and remember all the following people. Each one of them is associated with a particular part of the West. Choose someone to read the list. After each name answer as quickly as possible with the part of the West of which the man named reminds you.

John Sutter
Stephen F. Austin
Brigham Young
Marcus Whitman
Sam Houston

Going west

If you had crossed the United States from the Atlantic coast to the Pacific coast at each of the following dates, how might you have travelled?

1792 1849 1864 1870

Trails and highways

Get highway maps of the western states and compare them with the map on page 174. Choose one of the old trails or the route of an explorer. Then plan a trip by automobile which follows as closely as possible the trail you have chosen.



History Stories of

LATIN AMERICAN PEOPLES



History Stories of Latin American Peoples

South America's Long Struggle for Freedom

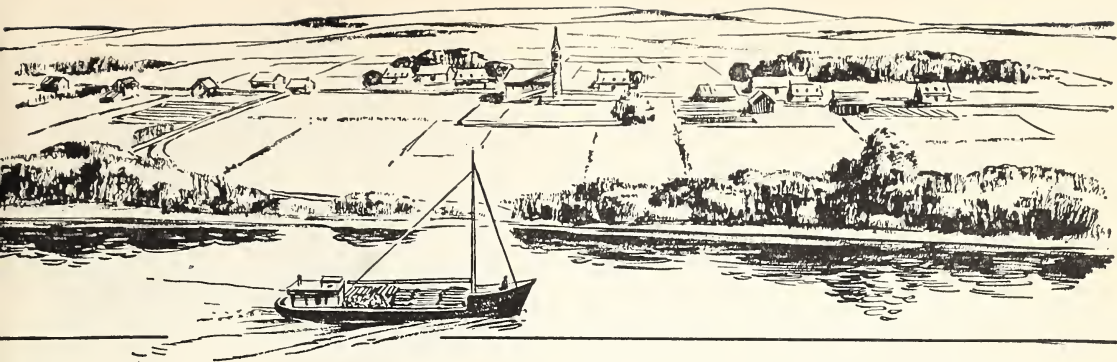
Up to now you have come to know the early explorers who opened up the Americas to their countrymen. Most of this book has been about the settlers who chose to live in the territory now known as the United States. Now we shall learn more about our neighbors who live farther south.

The people of the Americas who live south of the United States are known as Latin Americans. Their cities and towns are located in South America and Middle America. Middle America includes Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies. Spanish is the language commonly spoken in Latin American countries. However, in Brazil you hear mostly Portuguese (pōr 'tū-gēz).

Turn back to the map on page 10. Then scan the pages which follow, to page 26. This will recall to your mind the discoveries made in America south of the Tropic of Cancer.

Because South America's revolutions resemble that of the United States, we shall consider that continent first. Like the people of the United States, these other Americans had to fight for their freedom from a mother country which, they felt, treated its colonists very unkindly. The people of Latin America fought many bloody battles in their struggle to be free from Spain. But they were not alone. They were helped by people from other countries as Americans were in their fight for in-





dependence. The soldiers who fought in South America came from England, Ireland, and the United States. But let us learn more about the background of these Latin American people.

Early Spanish gold seekers

According to some historians, in the year 1501 the entire coast of Brazil was explored by Amerigo Vespucci (vēs-pōōt'chē). You may remember reading about him at the beginning of our story. Whether or not this is true, we do know that by 1525 the Atlantic coast line from the Strait of Magellan (mā-jēl'ăn) to the northern boundary of what is now the United States had been explored. Within thirty years after the discovery of the Pacific Ocean by Balboa (bāl-bō'ā), the entire west coast line of the Americas was being travelled by brave Spanish pioneers. But it remained for Pizarro (pī-zār'rō)

and one of his captains, Pedro de Valdivia (vāl-dē'vyā), to found the earliest South American cities. Pizarro, you may remember, conquered the Incas and established a Spanish colony in Peru (pē-rōō'). Valdivia decided that there was probably much wealth to be found in the territory beyond Peru. So in January, 1540, he started for Chile (chē'lā) with a band of 150 soldiers. His friends told him it was foolish to go on the journey. Hadn't another of Pizarro's soldiers been to Chile five years before and returned with empty hands? But Valdivia was determined to carry out his plan. After a year's march over high mountain barriers and across the burning Desert of Atacama (ă'tā-kā'mā), Valdivia and his men reached the beautiful central valley of Chile. Valdivia was delighted with the country, and there, on February 12, 1541, he established the city of Santiago



(săn'tê-ă'gō). Later, he founded a half-dozen other Chilean towns.

One of the strangest stories in the exploration of South America is about the founding of New Granada (grā-nă'dă) in the part of South America now occupied by the country we call Colombia (kô-lôm'bê-ă). Three men set out from different points in the direction of this territory. None of them knew other expeditions were under way. The first men to reach the territory of New Granada were the men of the expedition led by a Spanish lawyer, Jiménez de Quesada (dă kă-să'dă). He set forth from Santa Marta, a town on the coast of the Caribbean Sea, on April 6, 1536, with eight hundred other adventurers.

Quesada was determined to find a land where gold and jewels were plentiful. He had heard stories of such a place from the Indians. According to their tales, a native king, named El Dorado (ěl dô-ră'dô), took part every year in a strange ceremony. First he covered his body with a sticky gum. Then he powdered himself with gold dust. After this, he plunged into a lake that was sacred to the Indians and washed off his covering of gold. Meanwhile, the story went, the priests of the tribe offered their gods precious jewels by the handful. This legend inspired many of the Spanish explorers to search widely for the mysterious "Gilded Man." But nobody, including Quesada, was successful in this search.

It took Quesada and his men almost nine months to reach the territory of New Granada. During that time they suffered hardships that are hard to describe. Besides the rain, the mud, and the marshlands, they had to fight wild beasts and insects. Many nights

they were forced to climb trees and get whatever rest they could while strapped to the branches. At the end of the journey, only one hundred and sixty-six were left of the original eight hundred. The rest had died along the way.

Those who remained immediately set about collecting all the gold and precious jewels they could find. They found quite a lot! Then they founded a colony so that the land would belong to themselves and the king. On August 6, 1538, they founded the town of Santa Fe de Bogotá, which today is known simply as Bogotá (bô'gô-tă'). Quesada named the territory he had taken from the Indians New Granada, in memory of his own native Granada in Spain.

Quesada was not to remain governor very long. Two other expeditions were marching toward Bogotá. One of these expeditions was led by a German who had started out from Venezuela (văn'ê-zwē'lă). The other was led by Benalcázar (bă'năl-kă'zăr), one of Pizarro's captains. This old soldier already had to his credit the founding of two towns—one in Ecuador (êk'wă-dôr), another in Colombia. When the three explorers met, they decided to let the king of Spain determine which of them should be governor of New Granada. They all thought they deserved the position because of the hardships they had gone through. But the king chose not to listen to them, and none of the men was appointed governor.

What the Spaniards found

What kind of people and what sort of land did the early explorers find in South America? They found a land which was larger than Europe, the United States, and Alaska combined, but they did not know that at the time.



Precious metals came from the mines

Facing them on the west, all along the Pacific coast, were the great Andes (ăn'dēz) Mountains. The bases of these mountains extend down to the floor of the Pacific Ocean. In the central section of the continent they found the plains of the Orinoco (ō'rī-nō'kō), Amazon, and Paraguay (păr'ā-gwā) rivers, and the Rio de la Plata (rē'ōō dā lā plā'tā). The Amazon, biggest river in the world, was discovered in 1500 by a Spanish expedition.

When the Spanish explorers travelled through the interior of the continent, they were amazed to find huge stretches of forests, the like of which they had never seen. Beneath the earth, they found a variety of minerals.

Unlike the explorers of North America, they did not find many important fur-bearing animals. You remember how important a part fur trapping played in the early history of our country. The same was not true of South America. Instead of fur-bearing animals, the Spaniards found poisonous insects and reptiles—spiders, snakes,

and alligators, and, more deadly still, malaria and yellow-fever mosquitoes.

You recall what a remarkable civilization the Aztecs and Incas had developed. But there were many other tribes of Indians. We have not the space to tell you about all of them, but we will tell you about the most advanced.

When Quesada built the settlement of Bogotá, he was helped by the Chibcha (chīb'chā) Indians. The Chibchas were chiefly farmers. They also were experts in dyeing and weaving the cotton they cultivated. Another of their skills was making lovely objects from gold. But their most important activity was producing salt, which they sold to neighboring tribes.

In the southern part of Chile lived the Araucanian (ār'ō-kā'nī-ăn) Indians, who were different from the Chibchas. The Araucanians cultivated very few fields. They lived chiefly upon meats and wild plants. Although they wove some cloth, they usually wore clothing made from skins. The Chibchas were peaceful people, but the Araucanians

Latin American Peoples

were the fiercest warriors the Spaniards ever faced in the New World. One of the games they played taught them to outwit their enemies. To begin the game, a dozen or more of the tribe made a circle. In the middle of the circle they placed a child. Then another group of contestants tried to break through the circle and snatch the child away.

What the Spaniards brought

The Indians did not raise livestock. They did not have horses, goats, pigs, chickens, pigeons, or donkeys. The Spaniards brought all of these things with them to the New World. Nor were olive and orange trees, sugar cane, and quince cultivated before the Spaniards came. The European settlers brought other things to the New World.

They brought books, a religion which was different from the religion practised by the Indians, a system of written law, and many objects of art.

In turn, the Indians showed the Spaniards many things. They showed them how to plant fields of maize, potatoes, and tomatoes, and how to make medicine from certain herbs.

In time the Spanish and Indian ways of doing things mingled together. One important reason for this is that the Indian children adopted many of the Spanish customs. When they grew up and had children of their own, they passed along both Spanish and Indian ways of doing things.

By the end of the sixteenth century, there were 250 Spanish towns in South America. They were very much like the towns the settlers had left in Europe.

Lima, one of the early Spanish towns



They had some beautiful parks, large churches, schools, and town halls. Each settler had his own plot of land to work. All the towns were under the control of a viceroy, or, in other words, a governor. He could not make up any rules for governing the colony without first asking the king in far-away Spain. The king looked upon his colonies as his own personal property. He did not think the settlers should have the same privileges as the people who lived in Spain.

The king did not even allow the settlers to trade among themselves. Whenever one of the colonies needed some article that it did not produce, it had to order that article from the mother country. Besides, the colonies could not produce any goods that the merchants of Spain also made. In some places, the planting of vines and olives was forbidden; in others, the planting of flax or the building of mills. In this way Spain could grow richer and richer at the expense of her colonies. The people of South America became very unhappy about all these things.

Colonists begin fight for freedom

When the colonists finally did fight, it was, at first, not against Spanish soldiers. Instead, it was against the British. In 1806 a British fleet arrived in the Rio de la Plata and captured Buenos Aires (bwā'nōs ī'rās). The governor of the city had fled at the first sign of danger, so the people had no one to lead them in their fight. But they became very angry when the British commander made all the officials of the city promise to be loyal to the British king. In a bloody house-to-house battle, the British were defeated. It was the first time the Spanish col-

onists had fought together. It showed them that, even though they were badly trained, they knew how to cooperate.

Meanwhile, in Mexico, the people were rebelling against their Spanish rulers. Led by a priest named Miguel Hidalgo (ĕ-dāl'gō), they captured several towns before they were defeated by the king's armies. Many Mexicans lost their lives in battle. But from that time forth, a number of leaders came forward to help the Mexicans win their independence.

On July 5, 1811, Venezuela declared her freedom from Spain. Shortly afterwards, the leaders of the revolution wrote a constitution very much like that of the United States. Unfortunately, their freedom did not last longer than a year. The chief reason for this was an earthquake. On May 26, 1812, a number of Venezuelan cities were torn from their foundations by a terrible earthquake. Buildings toppled, roads were torn up, and many people lost their lives. Among those who died were almost three thousand patriot soldiers. Is it any wonder then that the people became very frightened and refused to fight the Spaniards any longer? In this state of mind, they turned upon the very men who had led them in their fight. One of these men was Francisco Miranda (mĕ-rān'dā).

Miranda was born in Caracas (kā-rā'kās), Venezuela, in 1750, the son of a wealthy merchant. At the age of seventeen he became a captain in the Spanish army and fought in many battles. Later he took part in the American Revolution, serving under George Washington. He also fought with the French in their fight to establish a republic. You can easily see, then, that Miranda did not believe in independence for only Latin



America. He believed in freedom for people everywhere.

Miranda's first attempt to rid the colonies of Spanish rule was in 1806. With the help of a British loan, he bought three boats in the United States. Then he set sail for the coast of Venezuela with two hundred men from the United States. But the Spanish had been told that he was coming. When the sails of Miranda's boats appeared near the mainland, the Spaniards gave chase and captured two of them. The third, carrying Miranda, escaped. A short time later, Miranda succeeded in landing on the shores of Venezuela, but the people were not interested in joining him. As in the United States during the American Revolution, there were quite a few colonists who were faithful to their mother country. To make matters worse, a large number of Spanish soldiers were stationed in the country. For these reasons, Miranda dropped his plans for independence until a more favorable time. Then he sailed for England to seek more aid.

Since Miranda was in London, other men led the revolution in Venezuela in 1810. There was no man of Miranda's importance, however, to head the new government, so he was asked to come back to Venezuela.

One of the men who asked Miranda to return was Simon Bolívar (bō-lē'vār). Bolívar was born in Caracas on July 24, 1783. At the age of three, he was left an orphan in the care of his uncle. When he was sixteen, he was sent abroad to continue his studies. In 1802 he married a beautiful young girl. They planned to live in Caracas. A year later she died there. Shortly after her death, Bolívar went to Europe, where he gave much thought to South

American independence. He returned to Venezuela in 1807, stopping on the way to visit the battlefields of the United States. Later he took part in the revolution of 1810 in Venezuela.

You have already learned how an earthquake upset the revolution. When Miranda saw that he could no longer go on fighting against the Spanish, he surrendered. Then he tried to flee the country. Some say he wanted to leave in order to get other countries to help Venezuela in her fight. Others say he was cowardly to surrender then. They wanted him to go on fighting. Bolívar was among those who thought that Miranda had acted wrongly. In great anger, young Bolívar turned the elderly Miranda over to the Spanish army. That is how the man who fought for Latin American independence most of his life came to spend his last years in a jail in Spain.

Meanwhile, Bolívar himself fled to New Granada, where he managed to enlist a small army. In several battles along the Magdalena (mäg'-dā-lā'nā) River, he led his men to victory after victory over the Spaniards. The most important of these battles took place at Cúcuta (kōō'kōō-tā) in New Granada. Here Bolívar and his army drove the royalist forces from the field after a four-hour battle. When the Spanish soldiers retreated, they left behind much valuable equipment, which Bolívar's men were able to use. After this battle, the government of New Granada made Bolívar a general. From then on, the battle to free all of northern South America was not fought from Venezuela. Bolívar decided that New Granada was a better place from which to carry on the fight because it was richer and had more people.

In 1815 Bolívar was in Jamaica (já-mā'ká). The Spaniards were in complete control of northern South America again. Bolívar's troops were not strong enough to fight the many royalist soldiers who kept coming from Spain. His only hope was to interest other nations in supplying him with more men and greater supplies. Both Britain and the United States were in sympathy with his cause. In 1817 vessels owned by Americans helped to clear the sea of Spanish ships. Both men and money were contributed by the British. Between the years 1817 and 1820 more than five thousand men sailed from English ports to aid the revolutionary army. Without these British troops, South American independence might not have been realized.

The long fight is won

Thus, in 1817, Bolívar was able to return once more to Venezuela. This time he made his headquarters in the basin of the Orinoco River. Early in

1819 he made preparations for his first big campaign. By way of the flooded plains of the Orinoco River, he led his men toward the mountains southeast of Bogotá. He was going to invade New Granada by way of the difficult mountain passes. The enemy never would suspect him of such a daring plan! Nearly a thousand men died in the eighty-day march across the Andes. But on August 7, 1819, the patriot army defeated a large number of Spanish soldiers at Boyacá (bō'yā-kä'). This great victory meant that it could march into Bogotá, the capital of New Granada. Two years later Bolívar defeated the last royalist forces in Venezuela, and by 1826 all the northern part of the continent was completely free.

You are probably wondering how the southern part of South America finally became independent. It was not Bolívar but another great general who was responsible for its independence. This great general's name was José de San Martín (dā sän mār-tēn').

Bolívar marching triumphantly into Bogotá





Over the Andes with San Martín

Young San Martín's first playmates were Indian boys in a settlement on the Argentine frontier. When he was eight years old, his parents moved to Spain, where he later became a soldier. While he was in Europe, he met Miranda and became very interested in independence for the land of his birth.

In 1812 he joined the army in Buenos Aires. Two years later he was already planning to liberate Chile and Peru. On July 9, 1816, Argentina (är'jën-tē'-ná) declared her independence and provided San Martín with men, money, and supplies.

Toward the end of January, 1817, the middle of the Argentine summer, San Martín led his men over the Andes into the heart of Chile. Their march took twenty-one days and led them over mountain passes as high as 13,000 feet. It is very difficult to breathe at that height. Airplane pilots sometimes wear oxygen masks today when they are up that high. To add to the discomforts of the great height, the weather was never the same. During the day San Martín's men had to remove their jackets because of the heat. At night it was bitter cold, and they huddled together, freezing. In spite of these difficulties, they were able to travel fifteen miles a day. Animals carried most of the baggage.

On February 12, San Martín and his soldiers completely surprised the Spanish army at Chacabuco (chä-kä-bōō'kō). Soon afterwards, San Martín entered Santiago, after the Spaniards had fled from the capital. Early in January, 1818, Chile declared herself a free nation.

Three years later San Martín drove the Spaniards from Lima (lē'mä), with the help of the Chilean people. It remained for Bolívar, however, to free the rest of Peru. In gratitude for this, the southeastern part of Peru separated from the section that lay along the coast. The new territory adopted the name "Bolivia" (bō-līv'ĭ-ä).

All this time we have not told you anything about Brazil (brä-zĭl')—the largest of the South American countries. There is a reason for this. Brazil's story is different from the story of Spanish America. Brazil was a Portuguese colony. It is the only American country in which a European king once ruled in person.

In 1807, while Portugal (pōr'tū găĭ) was being invaded by Napoleon's army, the Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil. In 1822, when Napoleon had

been defeated and exiled, the king returned to his native land. He left his son, Dom Pedro (pē 'drō), in charge of Brazil. When the king demanded that Brazil become a colony once more, Dom Pedro refused. On September 8, 1822, the young prince proclaimed the independence of Brazil. From that time on, the people enjoyed many privileges which the Spanish settlers of South America did not have.

Under Dom Pedro's son, Brazil became one of the richest nations in the world. However, in 1889, the Brazilian people decided that they no longer wanted a king. They wanted a form of government like that of the United States. This meant that, instead of a monarch, they would have a president. He would be elected by the people. When a king rules, members of his family usually succeed him. After they dethroned their king, the people of Brazil adopted a constitution very much like that of the United States.

There are some likenesses between the North and South American revolutions which you may already have noticed. The people of both continents fought against mother countries located in Europe. The colonists of these new countries fought against armies which were larger and better equipped than

their own. But there are also some differences. The wars for South American independence lasted three times as long, and cost more lives than the American Revolution. And the revolutionary battles in South America were fought over a much greater area than those in the United States. You may remember that George Washington did not have to cross any difficult mountain barriers like those crossed by Bolívar and San Martín.

The people of South America were inspired to fight for freedom by the example of their neighbors in the United States. During the years of revolution, they learned to help their next-door neighbors. Thus, without Argentina's assistance, San Martín might never have conquered Chile. Without the help of the Chilean people, he might never have marched into Lima.

Today, the United States of America is trying to carry out the spirit of cooperation with its neighbors to the south. You can see that best in the organization called the Pan American Union, which occupies a building in Washington, D.C. The Pan American Union was formed in 1890. Its purpose is to promote better relations among the people of the United States and Latin America.

Tales of the West Indies

The Buccaneers

You have read about Drake's raids upon the Spanish Main. The defeat of the Armada broke the power of Spain. England, France, and the Netherlands seized the opportunity to trade with the Spanish colonies. This was done in defiance of Spanish law, but Spain could no longer enforce her law among

the islands of the West Indies. Many sea captains set out in their own vessels to trade privately. They were called *privateers*. They traded with any willing customer. When opportunity offered, they plundered the ships and colonies of nations with which their own country was at war. Many became outright pirates.



Buccaneers smoking meat

In a curious way, privateers came to be called buccaneers. Often they landed on islands of the West Indies for food and water. Pigs ran wild on many of these islands. These were descendants of pigs that had escaped. The sailors learned from the natives how to preserve the meat so that it would keep longer in the tropics. A rack, called a *boucan*, was made of stout branches. On its legs and sides of pork were hung. A smoky fire of green twigs was set under the rack. The smoked, dried meat had a pleasant taste and aroma, and kept much longer than fresh meat. The sailors called it *boucan* or *bykin*. We call it bacon. The privateers used it and traded it throughout the islands. In this way they came to be known as *baconers* or buccaneers.

The most famous of the buccaneers was a Welshman, Henry Morgan. In one year, 1662, he raided Cuba, looted Santiago, blew up Morro Castle at the entrance to Habana harbor, and carried off the cathedral bells.

In 1665 Cromwell sent out an English fleet which took Jamaica from Spain.

The English buccaneers made this Isle of Fountains, *Xaymaca*, their headquarters. Morgan made himself their chief. Later Morgan was knighted and made governor. His first duty as governor was to stop all pirating by the buccaneers. He did this with great vigor. Jamaica and the other British West Indies became prosperous plantation islands. In 1833 slavery was abolished. Then, one by one, Britain's island colonies were given self-government.

Hispaniola becomes two republics

French buccaneers settled Tortuga, a small island off the north coast of Hispaniola. A few at a time, they moved to the main island. There they settled down as sugar planters. Soon they had possession of the western one-third of the island. In 1697 France forced Spain to give up this part of the island. It was called Haiti, and the French made it the richest colony of the West Indies. Spain kept the eastern part, called Santo Domingo. The wealth of Haiti and Santo Domingo was enjoyed by about



Christophe's Citadel

five thousand white planters and their families. The work was done by more than two hundred thousand African negro slaves. There were also more than five thousand free mulattoes. Mulattoes are people of mixed African and European ancestry.

In 1789 the French Revolution brought hope to the slaves and mulattoes of Haiti. The revolution proclaimed liberty, equality, and fraternity for all. The mulattoes sent one of their people to Paris to demand the right to vote in Haiti. The French government ordered that mulattoes should elect the same number of members to the assembly as the whites.

But the white planters thought differently. The messenger was tortured and executed in the public square of the capital, Cap Haitien. A sullen crowd of negroes and mulattoes looked on. In the crowd were three men who were soon to become the heroes of free Haiti. One was Jacques Dessalines, a negro servant. Another was Henri Christophe,

a negro waiter. The third was Toussaint L'Ouverture, a negro coachman.

Toussaint was the first to rise to power. In 1793, France went to war against Spain and Britain. The Spanish in Santo Domingo urged the negroes of Haiti to revolt. Toussaint became the leader of the negroes and was made general of the Spanish army in Santo Domingo. But when the British came to conquer Haiti, Toussaint returned to become commander of the French forces. He drove out the British. Then he declared the whole island a part of the French empire under Napoleon. His chief assistants were Generals Dessalines and Christophe.

Napoleon assured the islanders that whatever their color, all were free French citizens. The three leaders immediately began to make this true throughout the island. Work stopped on the plantations. Then Napoleon sent a force to subdue the people. He needed trade profits to wage war.

Toussaint was captured by treachery and died in prison. Dessalines and Christophe fought on. They had a powerful ally, the yellow fever. It killed more than half the French soldiers. In 1803 the French withdrew, and in the next year Dessalines, *The Tiger of Haiti*, proclaimed a republic with himself the first emperor. He made a flag for Haiti from the French tricolor by tearing out the white stripe. In the horrible massacre which followed, almost every white person on the island was killed. Dessalines could not control either the people or his own army, now that the French had been driven out. He tried cruelty, and was himself murdered.

Christophe then became emperor. He was an excellent manager. He began to restore the country by dividing up

the plantations and putting the people to work. He regulated wages and hours of work. To warn off other nations, Christophe built a huge fortress, the Citadel, high on a mountain. To make people respect him he built a palace, *Sans Souci*. There he held court, in magnificent finery, among costly furnishings, paintings, and ornaments. Weavers were brought from Europe to teach the people their craft. Schools were opened. Trade was increased. But the people grumbled. They were free, but they had to work almost as hard as they had had to work as slaves.

In 1820 Christophe was stricken with paralysis. He had worked himself hard, too. When some of his people rebelled, he shot himself. Then Haiti became a republic, with an elected president.

The United States frees Cuba

Columbus, you remember, called Cuba the "most beautiful land human eyes ever saw." Hernando de Soto made it a sugar plantation. When the native Arawak and Carib Indians had been worked to death, negro slaves were bought. Rich Spanish and French planters, driven from other colonies by revolts, came to Cuba. The planters and the Spanish governors ruled very harshly. They feared a fate like that of the planters of Haiti.

The first revolt came in 1868. After a savage, ten-year struggle, the revolt was crushed. Another began in 1895. The Spanish forces rounded up thousands—men, women and children—and herded them into compounds. They were treated so cruelly that many perished. The world was shocked.

Long before this, in 1823, President Monroe had proclaimed what is now

called the Monroe Doctrine. This statement declared that the United States believed that no nation of Europe should interfere with the freedom of Latin American countries. In return, the United States would not interfere in European affairs. If anything was to be done about the troubles of Cuba, the United States would have to do it.

The United States protested to Spain against the treatment of the people of Cuba. A warship, the *U.S.S. Maine*, was sent to Habana harbor to make a show of force. This was intended to prevent more cruelty to those fighting for freedom in Cuba. On February 15, 1898, the *Maine* was blown up in Habana harbor. Public fury in the United States forced President McKinley to declare war on Spain.

In less than a year the war was over. The Spanish fleet was destroyed and Cuba was occupied by the United States army. By the peace treaty, Cuba, the Philippine Islands, Puerto Rico, and Guam passed from Spain under the protection of the United States. After three years of army rule, Cuba was made a republic in 1902. The United States aided and guided the growth of the young nation. In 1934 the last American controls were removed and Cuba became completely independent.

Cuba has a president and a congress like that of the United States. In an election, voting is compulsory for both men and women. The chief of the state is the president. He chooses a cabinet to assist him.

In 1933 Fulgencio Batista led a revolt of the army, took over the government and made himself president. He lost power in 1944. In 1952 General Batista again overthrew the government and made himself prime minister.

The History Workshop

There are only a few dates you will want to put down on your time chart. Try to select the dates which seem to you to be important for Canadians. A class discussion will help everyone to decide which events are most significant. You may fit them into your other time charts or make a parallel chart of Latin American and Canadian events.

What are the natural barriers?

In the pages you have been reading, you learned that explorers, military men, and others often had to cross natural barriers in order to reach their objectives. Some of these natural barriers were the St. Lawrence River, the Andes Mountains, and the Rocky Mountains. Using these three names, fill in the blanks in the following sentences:

1. La Vérendrye sought a route to the western sea. He did not know that the xxxxx Mountains made it impossible for a river in the interior of Canada to flow to the Pacific.

2. San Martín crossed the xxxxx Mountains to liberate Santiago.

3. Bolívar crossed the xxxxx Mountains to free New Granada.

4. Canada has often been called the child of the xxxxx River.

What is their native tongue?

The language of a country very often is the one spoken by its founders. In the following countries and provinces what language do most of the people speak?

- | | |
|------------|------------------|
| 1. Quebec | 4. Venezuela |
| 2. Brazil | 5. United States |
| 3. Ontario | 6. Mexico |

Are any languages besides English spoken in your home? Do you know any people who cannot speak English at all? Why can't they?

Do you recognize these descriptions?

Each of the following is a description of something or someone. Only one or two words are required for the answers.

1. He was a buccaneer who was given the task of suppressing piracy in the Caribbean Sea.

2. After helping to free his people from slavery, he built a fortress to make them feel safe and a palace to make them proud of their nation.

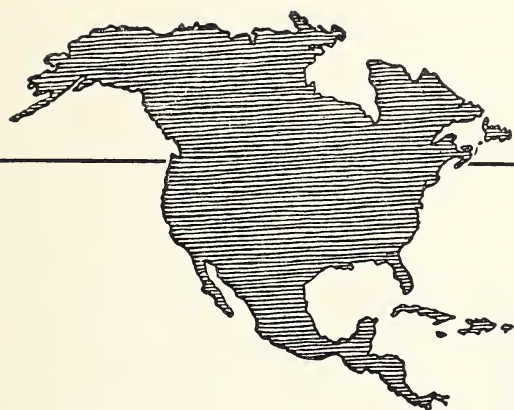
3. When Miranda finally landed on the shores of this South American country, the people were not interested in helping him fight for independence.

4. He was an Indian chief who powdered himself with gold dust, which he later washed off.

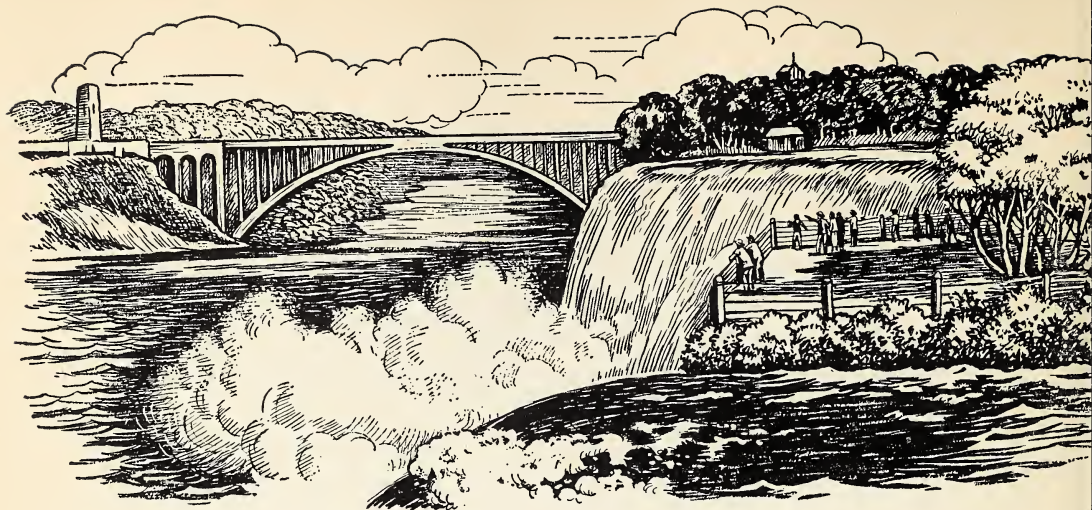
Who were these people?

Can you match the people named in the left-hand column with the sentences on the right that best describe them?

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| 1. Simon Bolívar | a. He made a flag for Haiti by tearing the white stripe from the tricolor. |
| 2. Jose de San Martín | b. He advised the nations of Europe not to interfere in the affairs of Latin America. |
| 3. Jacques Dessalines | c. Bolivia is named for him. |
| 4. Miguel Hidalgo | d. He led the Mexican people in their first revolt against the Spanish king. |
| 5. James Monroe | e. He helped to liberate the portions of South America that include the countries of Chile and Peru. |



CANADA and the
UNITED STATES



The Rainbow Bridge, Niagara Falls, links Canada with the United States

Canada and the United States

Friendly Neighbors

Canada has a population of fourteen million. The United States has a population of one hundred fifty million. It is the richest and most powerful nation in the world. Living next door to such a neighbor has many advantages. Sometimes it can be very trying. Our position is much like that of a young workman and his family. We live in a good, but modest dwelling. Next door, to the south lives the millionaire, the United States. But our back yard, far to the north, is a larger property than his. We are just beginning to tap its resources.

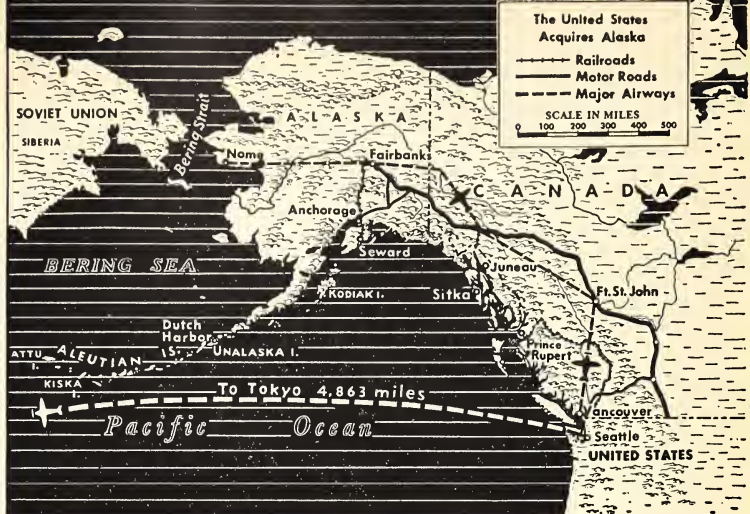
Beyond our back yard, across the Arctic Ocean, is another nation, Russia. Russia makes us anxious. Most Canadians believe that Russia wants to change our ways of living to ways we would not like. The United States is more worried about this than we are.

Millionaires always have more to worry about.

This is the time when we want to have a strong, friendly neighbor. As you know, Canada and the United States have not always been friends. In 1812 we were at war. Since 1814 we have kept the peace. As the years passed, Canada and the United States learned more about each other. In the War of 1812, Canadians showed that they were willing and able to defend their country. The events of that war earned for us the respect of the United States. Since that time there have been some disputes and some misunderstandings, but these have always been settled peacefully. In settling these disputes both nations have learned how to live as neighbors. Both have learned that each has private affairs in which the neighbor must not interfere. Both have learned that neigh-

bors need to work together in affairs that concern both nations.

Let us study some of the disputes which have arisen between Canada and the United States since 1814. You will see how we have changed the ways of settling our disputes. You will see what has been done to prevent disputes.



The Alaska Boundary Dispute

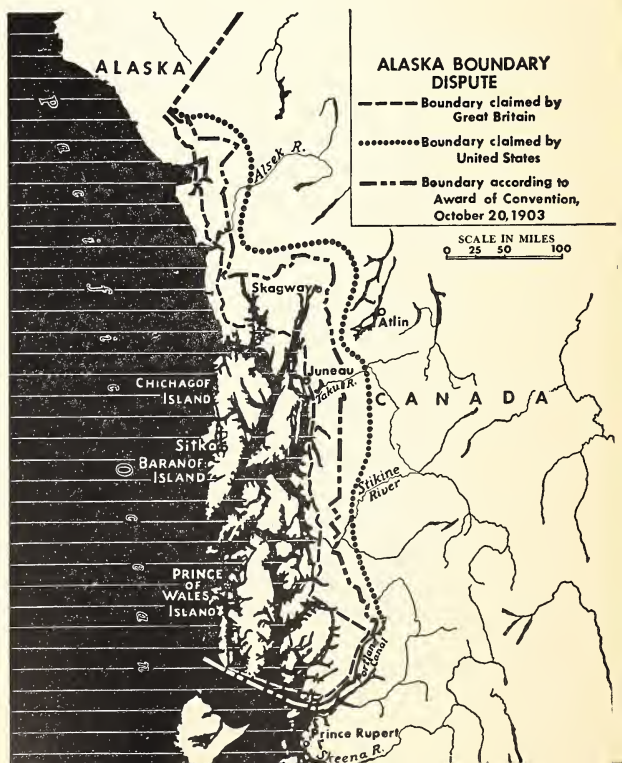
On July 1, 1867, the Dominion of Canada was formed. Three months earlier, the United States had bought Alaska from Russia.

In 1724 Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, hired a Dane, Vitus Bering, to explore for him. Four years later, Bering discovered the strait which bears his name. In 1741 he discovered Alaska and claimed it for Russia. In 1784 Russian fur traders established a trading post on Kodiak Island. Later the Russian American Company was formed, and a colony was begun, with its capital at Sitka. The Russian traders extended the colony southward, along the coast, on a strip of land that is now known as the Alaska Panhandle. On the map you will see that it resembles the handle of a pan.

As early as 1855 the Russians tried to sell Alaska to the United States. Finally, in 1867, the United States bought it for \$7,200,000.

The boundary between Alaska, the Yukon, and British Columbia was very vague. Very little of the country had been mapped or completely explored.

Both Canada and the United States realized that boundary disputes were likely to occur. In 1871 the Treaty of Washington was made between Great Britain and the United States. At that time



Great Britain managed all Canada's affairs with other countries. By this treaty it was agreed that all disputes between Canada and the United States would be settled by an arbitration board. Each country would name three members of the board. The board would hear all sides of each dispute and decide by a vote how to settle it.

For thirty years no one thought much about the Alaskan boundary. But in 1897 gold was found on the Klondike in the Yukon and a rush began. Then gold was found at Nome and near Fairbanks, in Alaska. Immediately a dispute arose. Where should the boundary be?

In 1903 an International Tribunal was set up by Great Britain and the United States to settle the Alaskan Boundary Dispute. Each country named three judges to the tribunal. Great Britain named two Canadian judges and one English judge. On every vote in the tribunal, the English judge voted with the United States judges, against the Canadian judges. Almost every claim was decided in favor of the United States. Perhaps this was right, but it made Canadians very angry. Angry though they were, the Canadian government accepted the decision, and the boundary was set.

The International Joint Commission

Both Great Britain and Canada were alarmed. Neither country liked the angry feelings which had been aroused in Canada against the motherland. An agreement was soon reached. In 1909 Great Britain made another treaty with the United States. This treaty set up a permanent board, called The International Joint Commission. Its duty was to settle all disputes remaining be-

tween Canada and the United States and to settle all disputes referred to it in the future by either Canada or the United States. There are six members. Three are named by the United States. Three are named by Canada. Great Britain did not want any responsibility. The settlements were to be solely between Canada and the United States. There should be no more bad feelings between Canada and the motherland over these decisions.

The International Joint Commission meets at least twice a year. Every April it meets in Washington, with one of the American members as chairman. Every October it meets in Ottawa with one of the Canadian members as chairman. If there are many questions to decide, the Commission meets as often as is necessary to settle them. In this way many troubles are avoided. Both Canada and the United States try to foresee what disputes are likely to arise. Usually the Commission is able to find means to avoid trouble.

One of the questions that was referred to the Commission in 1952 was the St. Lawrence Seaway proposed by Canada. The river forms a part of the boundary between Canada and the United States. Changes made in the river will flood lands in both countries. Ships of both nations use the waterway and will profit from it. Before Canada could start the work, the plan had to be approved by the Commission. This approval was given. Canada was then free to make arrangements with the authority named by the United States to share in the power to be developed.

In the future any difficulties or misunderstandings that arise between the United States and our own country, can safely be settled by the Commission.

Brothers in Arms

In the first World War, 1914 to 1918, Canada fought with the British Empire against Germany. In 1916, the United States joined the Allies in the war. This at once improved relations between Canada and the United States. There were some jealousies, of course, but they were more like the friendly rivalries between members of the same team. Both nations knew that they had the same ideas about how nations should act. Both shared the honors of victory.

Peace was made in 1919. Canada sent her own delegates to the peace conference. They signed the peace treaty for Canada. Ever since that time, Canada has managed her own affairs with other nations. This made it necessary for Canada to have ministers or ambassadors in those countries with whom Canada did a great deal of business.

The first minister to be named was a minister to the United States, in 1919. The first minister was a member of the British Embassy in Washington. Then, in 1927, Canada opened a legation of her own in Washington. Now it has been raised to be an embassy and Canada has an ambassador to the United States in Washington. The United States, likewise, sent a minister to Canada, and opened a legation in Ottawa. This, too has been made an embassy.

The ambassador is an important person. He must be skilful in explaining to Americans what Canadians believe, think, and hope for. He must be able to inform Canadians what Americans believe, think, and hope for. His task is to see that there is understanding instead of misunderstanding.

The more successful he is, the more friendly are the relations between our countries.

The Second World War began in 1939. Canada declared war against Germany, as a nation. The Statute of Westminster of 1931 had made the Commonwealth nations responsible for all their own affairs. In 1941 the United States again became our ally. Again we were brothers in arms. But even before the United States entered the war it had become our ally. On August 17, 1940, the Canadian Prime Minister, Mr. King, met with President Roosevelt at Ogdensburg. There they agreed to set up the Canada-United States Joint Board of Defence. Both nations name an equal number of members. The board plans ways in which Canada and the United States work together on defences. Our armies, navies, and air forces work together. Both nations are anxious to see that the far north is well defended.

Look at the globe. See how air attacks could be made across the Arctic Ocean. Canada allows the United States to have defence bases in many parts of Canada. The safety of both nations makes this necessary. Alone, we could not easily afford either the money or the men required.

The Joint Board of Defence also decides what kinds of weapons and supplies are best for our use. Both nations will use many of the same kinds of weapons, tanks, airplanes, and ammunition. If we are attacked, the forces of both nations can use the same weapons. They can be supplied from either nation. If an attack comes, we shall be brothers in armor as well as in arms.

The History Workshop

The forty-eight states

The forty-eight states of the United States are listed here with the date when each entered the Union. For the thirteen original states, the date given is the year in which the state legislature ratified the union. Can you name the thirteen original states?

Alabama	1819	Nebraska	1867
Arizona	1912	Nevada	1864
Arkansas	1836	New Hampshire	1788
California	1850	New Jersey	1787
Colorado	1876	New Mexico	1912
Connecticut	1788	New York	1788
Delaware	1787	North Carolina	1789
Florida	1845	North Dakota	1889
Georgia	1788	Ohio	1803
Idaho	1890	Oklahoma	1907
Illinois	1818	Oregon	1859
Indiana	1816	Pennsylvania	1787
Iowa	1846	Rhode Island	1790
Kansas	1861	South Carolina	1788
Kentucky	1792	South Dakota	1889
Louisiana	1812	Tennessee	1796
Maine	1820	Texas	1845
Maryland	1788	Utah	1896
Massachusetts	1788	Vermont	1791
Michigan	1837	Virginia	1788
Minnesota	1858	Washington	1889
Mississippi	1817	West Virginia	1863
Missouri	1821	Wisconsin	1848
Montana	1889	Wyoming	1890

The ten provinces

Compare the list of Canadian provinces and the dates when they became provinces of the Dominion of Canada. Can you name the four of these which existed as separate colonies in 1776?

Alberta	1905	Nova Scotia	1867
British Columbia	1871	Ontario	1867
Manitoba	1870	Prince Edward Island	1873
New Brunswick	1867	Quebec	1867
Newfoundland	1949	Saskatchewan	1905

The United States flag

To answer these questions consult the index as well as the list of the states.

1. How many stars were on the flag which Francis Scott Key saw flying over Fort McHenry? What states were members of the Union then?

2. How many stars were on the flag when Lincoln was inaugurated? What states became Confederate States during the War between the States?

3. How many stars were on the United States flag when the Dominion of Canada was formed? What states had been admitted to the Union since Lincoln's election?

4. What states had not been admitted when the *Maine* was blown up? How many stars were on the flag flown on the *Maine*?

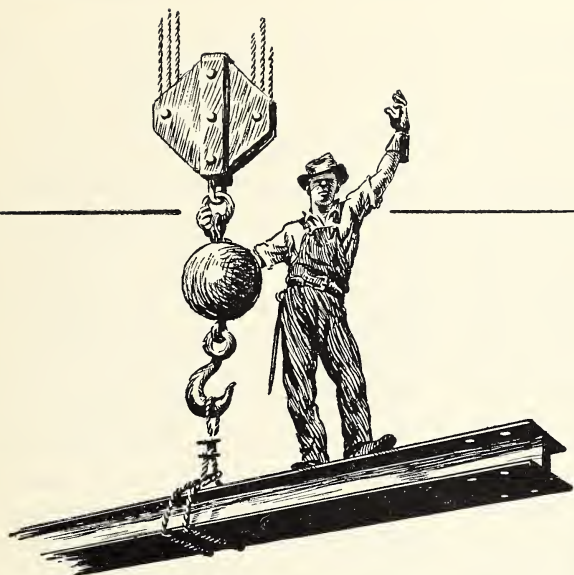
5. What states were admitted since the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta were formed?

6. For how many years has the Stars and Stripes had forty-eight stars?

Spot the State

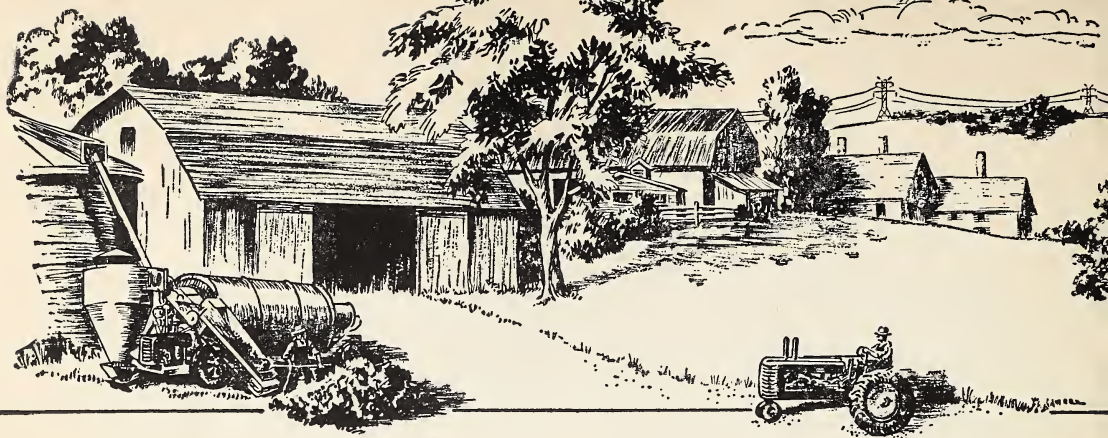
With what state do you associate each of the following?

John Jacob Astor	Tecumseh
Stephen Austin	Roger Williams
Lord Baltimore	Brigham Young
Daniel Boone	Lord Calvert
The Alamo	Conestoga Wagons
Virginia Dare	Patrick Henry
Sam Houston	Thomas Hooker
Minutemen	Napoleon Bonaparte
Pilgrims	Ponce de Leon
Mount Vernon	Netherlands
William Penn	John Sutter
Peter Stuyvesant	Sir Walter Raleigh
Samoset	Pocahontas
Independence Hall	Abraham Lincoln
Father Junipero	Comstock Lode
Henry Ford	Liberty Bell
Golden Gate	The Mayflower
Quakers	Queen Elizabeth I



New Ways of

LIVING



New Ways of Living

The Greatest Change of All

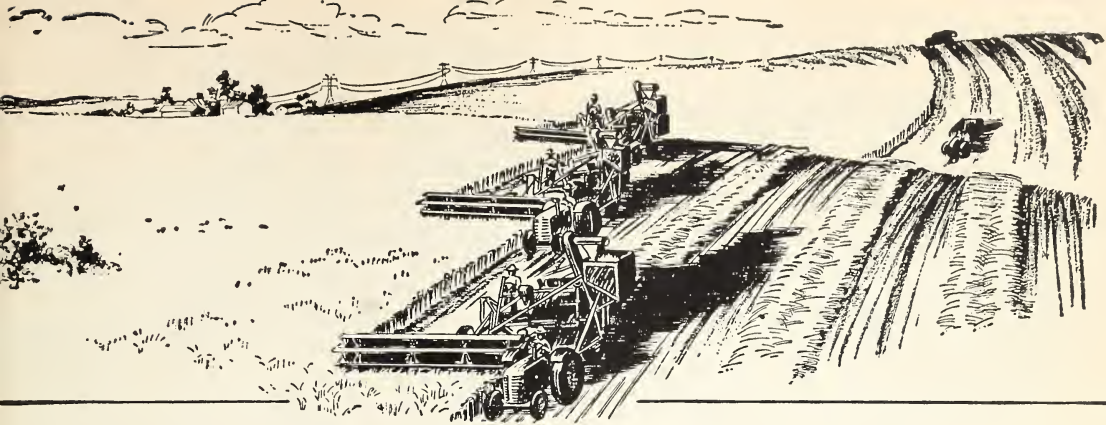
You have read about the explorers and pioneers who discovered and settled the country to the south of us. You have learned about the growth of the United States from the beginning down to about 1890 when the frontier was fully settled. By 1890 the story of the settlement of the country comes to an end. But the story of its growth does not.

In the years just after the American Revolution, a great change began in the United States. It was caused by the coming of the machine. You have already read about the beginnings of that change and how it affected the way people lived. It started in Britain with

the Industrial Revolution in the late 1700's. It went on with the invention of the cotton gin, the steamboat, and the railroad. You may want to use the index in the back of this book to look up the stories of those inventions.

This book has told you very little about the way machines have changed ways of living in the United States. This is because the greatest change has occurred mainly in the years since the settlement of the West was completed. In fact, when the last frontier was settled, the automobile, motion picture, radio, and airplane had not yet been invented.





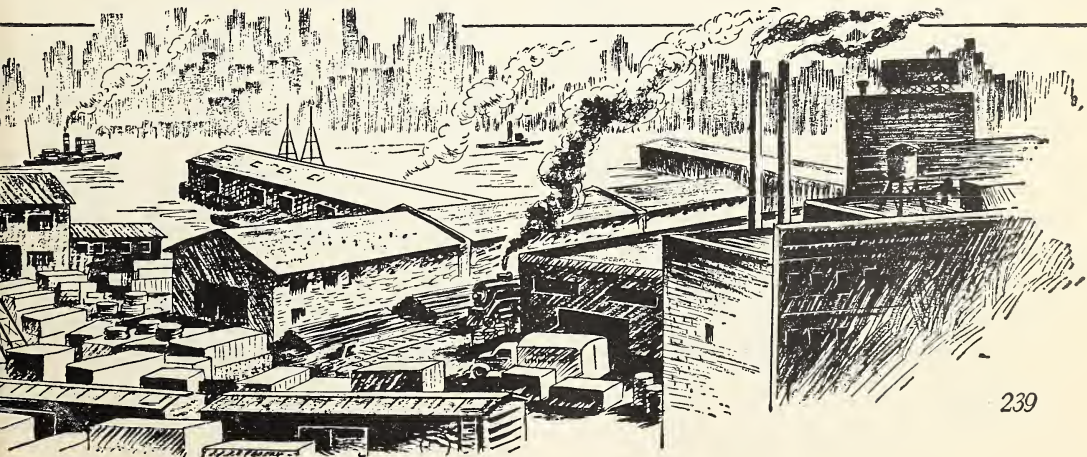
This chapter tells the story of these changes. Like most of this book, it tells the story of explorers and pioneers. But the people you will read about in this chapter did not discover new land. They discovered new ways of doing things. They discovered new ways of travelling, of working, of playing. They were inventors.

This chapter is about those inventors, the machines they made, and the people who use the machines. It is the story of how those machines have changed the way we all live.

This great change is still going on in Canada, in the United States, and all over the world. It began such a short time ago that there are many people alive today who can remember the days before the change. It is still going on, and it is taking place in your lifetime.

Most of you can remember when television first came into our homes. With it came a wholly new way of having fun. The radio may seem old fashioned now. But to many of your parents it, too, was a new and thrilling invention.

Just think for a moment how many new things you have learned on the radio and television. Think how you learn from them what is happening in other parts of our country and the world. Think how you visit places you have never been and meet people you have never known. It is easy for us to see how our lives are changing. It is harder to realize that the machines we now take for granted were once just as new and exciting. Not very long ago the telephone, the electric light, the automobile, even the radio, were brand new.



Men, not machines, are the important subject of this chapter. Machines are useless until men put them to work. This chapter is about the men who use machines. Since we all use machines, this chapter is about all of us.

Machines are neither good nor bad. The way men use them may be either. This chapter tells you how men have used machines in the past.

Then and now

On pages 102–103 of this book there is a picture showing the home life of a New England farmer's family about 1750. Look at it again, carefully. It will help you to realize just how much some of our ways of living have changed in both Canada and the United States.

There is one important thing that the picture shows. Everyone in the family, except the youngest child, is working. One daughter is sewing, the other is knitting, the mother is fitting a new waistcoat on her little boy, the father is weaving at the loom, and the older boy is making a broom.

Look at other details of the picture and read again about the way of life in New England in 1750. You can see how many other kinds of work people had to do. The farmer, of course, had to work the land. His wife and his children would often help him. Then there was wool to spin, bread to make, cream to churn into butter, wood to cut.

Doing these and all the many other tasks was work, hard work. It had to be done, all of it, if the family was to keep warm and well fed. To get it all done, everyone in the family had to help. From sunrise to sunset every day but Sunday, everyone worked very hard.

There were two reasons why this was so. People then had to make almost

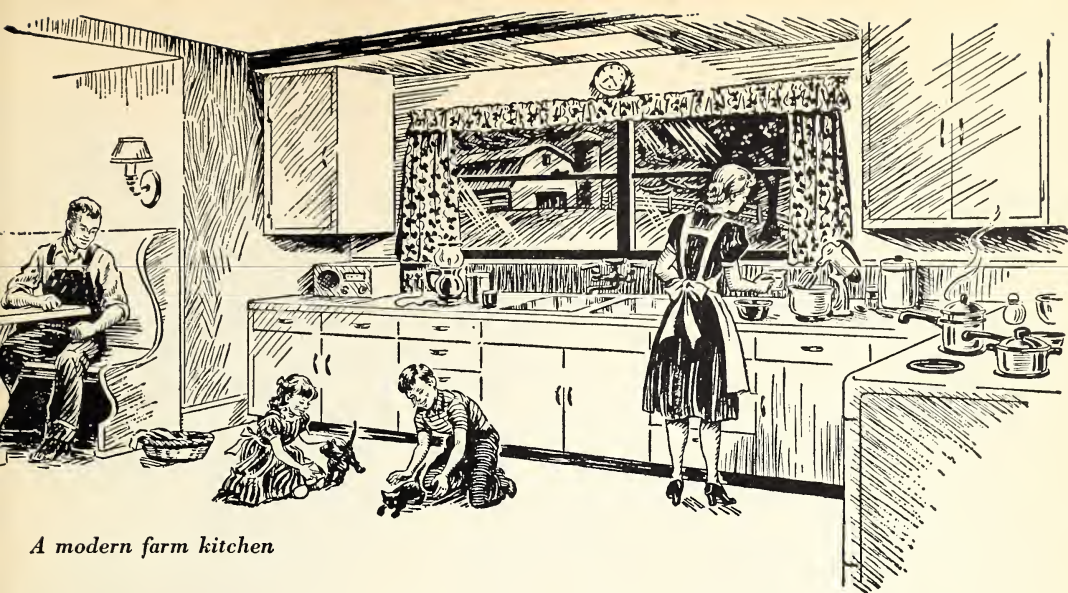
everything they needed themselves. The farmer was not just a farmer. He built his own house. He made most of his own furniture. He made his own clothes. There were very few men who did just one kind of work. There were very few stores where ready-made goods could be bought.

Almost all of this work had to be done by hand. It had to be done with the strength of muscle in a man's back and arms. There were a few machines, like the loom and the spinning wheel. They helped to make work faster and easier. But these machines had to be operated by hand. There was no power to move them but the strength of muscle.

Through the entire period you have read about in this book, the people lived lives much like those of the New England colonists. From the time of earliest settlements down to the invention of many labor-saving machines, life for most people meant hard physical labor. They made much of what they owned themselves. They had few machines to help them.

Now look at the picture on page 241. It shows the kitchen of a farmhouse in Wisconsin. It is much like the kitchens of many homes in this country today. It is a rainy day, just as it was for the New England family. But the room is brightly lit. Dinner is cooking on the electric stove. Mother is mixing cake batter with an electric mixer. Father is listening to the radio, and the children are playing.

No one is working but the mother, and her work is not very hard. Electricity and machines can do much of it for her. She need not bake bread. The bread, baked by machines, comes from the store. She need not make clothes. They, too, can be bought at a store.



A modern farm kitchen

There is still, of course, much hard work to be done on the farm. But the farmer, too, has machines to help him. Children no longer have to work so hard to help to make a living. They still do some chores, but they have enough time to play and enough time for school. They will probably finish high school, and they may go on to college. On rainy days, like this one, there is time for the whole family to be together, to read, to play, or to rest.

Most people on this continent can now live in the way this Wisconsin family does. Not many people need to

work as hard as the frontier farmers did. Why? Because machines now do the work that once was done by men. Because new kinds of power, many times stronger than men's muscles, drive those machines. Power-driven machines have made a revolution in the way people can work and live.

Although most of this great change has taken place in the past fifty years, its beginnings were quite a bit earlier. Nothing in history happens all of a sudden. To understand the way we live today, you must know how this change came about.

The Great Need for New Ways of Farming

Let us see first how machines have changed the ways of farming. That is a good place to start, because nothing affects the way we live and the way we feel more than what we eat, and how much we eat. Because wheat is North America's largest crop, we shall begin by seeing how machines have changed the way wheat is grown.

Although the ways the wheat farmer works have changed, the things he must

do have not. Now, as always, he must plow the soil, sow the seed, care for the growing crop, reap it, and thresh it. Then he must separate the rich wheat kernels from the straw and chaff.

Until after the American Revolution, men were doing these things much as they had been done for a thousand and more years before. They used wooden plows, wooden spades, and hammered iron scythes or cradles. The scythes

looked like long, curved knives. The cradle was a curved knife attached to a long curved wooden handle. It had little wooden fingers which made the grain fall into neat lines. Both were used to cut down the ripe wheat. You can see some of these crude tools, or implements, in the pictures on pages 113 and 116.

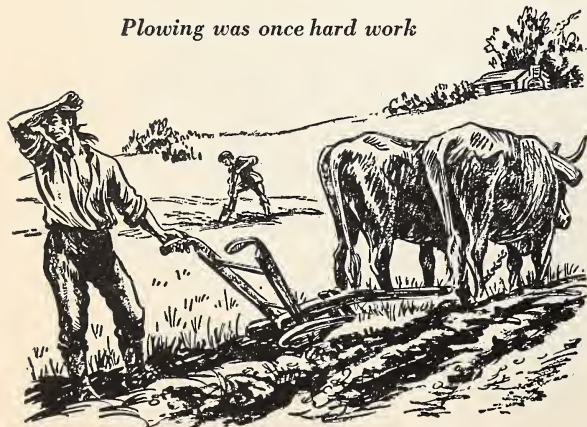
Just about 1800 the farmers' way of working began to change. This change was slow at first. It was more than a hundred years before most farmers used machines in all of the stages of growing wheat.

The first farm machines

The pioneer colonial farmer knew that his plow and other tools were not very good. But for a very long time no one tried to make them any better. This was because it was possible, even with poor tools, for a farmer to feed himself and his family. In the early days of the colonies, the farmer did not try to do much more.

He lived with his family on his farm. He was glad to take from the soil what he needed. All of his energies went into growing what he needed to live on through the cold winters. If he did not have enough, he could not run to the corner store for a loaf of bread.

Plowing was once hard work



With only crude tools, it took a farmer and his family all of their time just to make enough to feed and clothe themselves. Except for the slaves in the South, there were very few farm laborers who could help. In pioneer days, when land was cheap, almost every farmer owned his own farm.

When there were jobs too heavy for one man, his neighbors helped him. He, in his turn, helped them. Together they helped one another build new houses. They cleared the trees to prepare new farm land. They chopped wood and tended the fires needed to boil salt out of water at the salt springs.

There was only one way a farmer could grow more food. He had to do his work faster, with the help of better tools. He had to put machines to work for him. And so many men, in many parts of the young nation, began to think of ways to make farm tools better.

The first tool that was improved was the first one the farmer used each spring, the plow. Plowing had always been very hard work. Wooden plows were not tough enough to turn furrows easily in hard soil. They were often broken by stones or roots. And they did not cut smoothly through the earth and turn over the dirt the way a good plow must do. Plowing was slow and difficult work. The plows had to be pulled by as many as six oxen. While one man guided the plow, another followed him with a spade to finish turning over the dirt.

No one man invented the modern plow. It was the work of many men, and it took a long time, about fifty years. The first improvement was to make the plow of iron, which is much harder than wood. This was done before 1800, by a man named Charles Newbold. This



John Deere's first plows were made in shops like this

plow was much better than any men had ever known, but farmers would not buy it. It seems strange to us now, but they were afraid of it. Some said the iron would poison the soil. Others said that it would make the weeds grow faster. Although they needed the help of Newbold's plow, the farmers did not want to change their ways of working.

Newbold died a poor man. But not long after his death, farmers began to realize how much better iron plows really were. And soon almost every farmer was using iron plows.

In the 1830's, however, many farmers were moving westward into the great plains of the midwestern prairie. There they found soil richer and deeper than any they had ever seen in New England. But it was sticky, and the roots of the prairie grass that had grown there for centuries were hard to cut through.

The farmers needed a special plow to do the job of turning the rich plains into

farm land. The man who made that plow was John Deere, a blacksmith in Illinois. His plow worked very well. Instead of iron he used steel, which was sharper and harder. It cut right through the roots, and the black earth didn't stick to it. The furrows it made were straight and clean. It turned over the soil so neatly that the farmer did not need to use his spade, too. It could be drawn by just two oxen or horses.

John Deere made a great deal of money selling his plows. It seemed that everyone wanted one, for thousands of farmers were moving to the Middle West to settle on its rich land. If it had not been for John Deere's good plow, it probably would have taken many more years to settle the country.

With better plows, the farmer was able to plant many more acres of grain. But until he had a rapid way of harvesting his crop, larger plantings were impossible. For wheat must be harvested

at once when it is ripe. The stalks must be cut down and bound together. Then the kernels of grain that will be ground into flour must be separated from the straw and chaff.

So long as he had to cut the grain with a cradle or scythe, the farmer could not grow a large crop. His great need was for a machine to do this work. The next great advance in the way of growing wheat was a mechanical reaper.

The man who first made a successful reaper was Cyrus McCormick. Many men had attempted to make reapers before him. Together they had solved most of the problems in making this complicated machine. But Cyrus McCormick made a machine that worked, and he made many of them. Farmers all over the country were soon using them.

Young Cyrus' father and grandfather had both been pioneer farmers in Virginia. His father was quite a prosperous farmer. He was also an inventor and a blacksmith. In his smithy he could forge his own tools. Cyrus grew up thinking of inventions and machines,

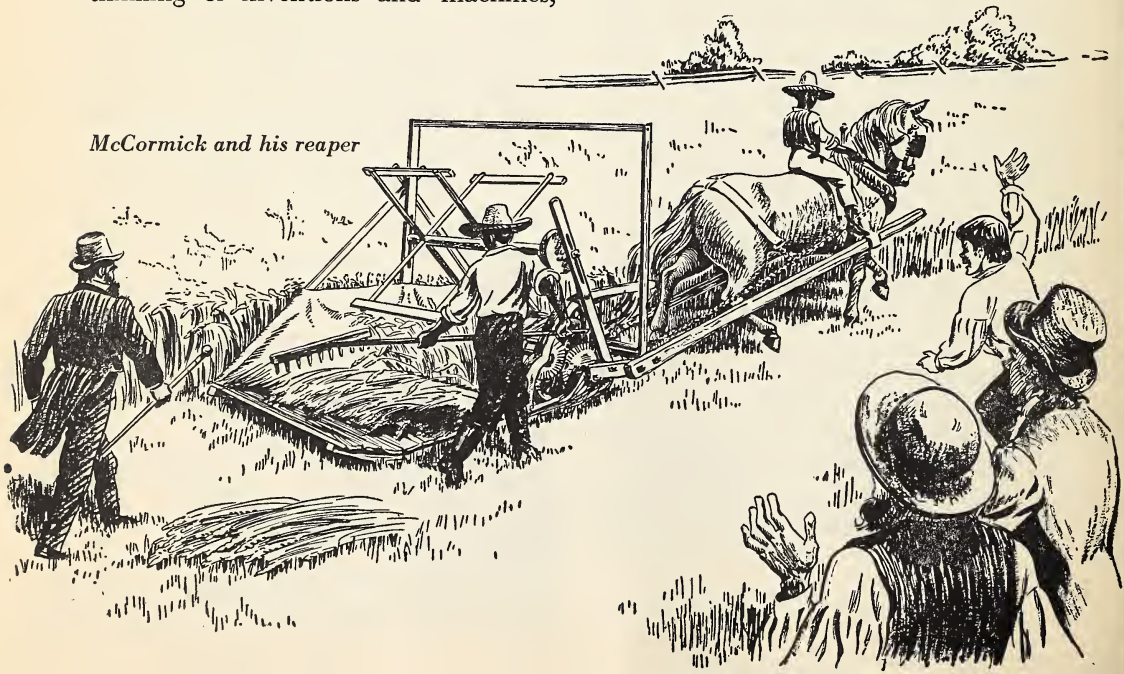
imagining how better tools and machines could help the farmer.

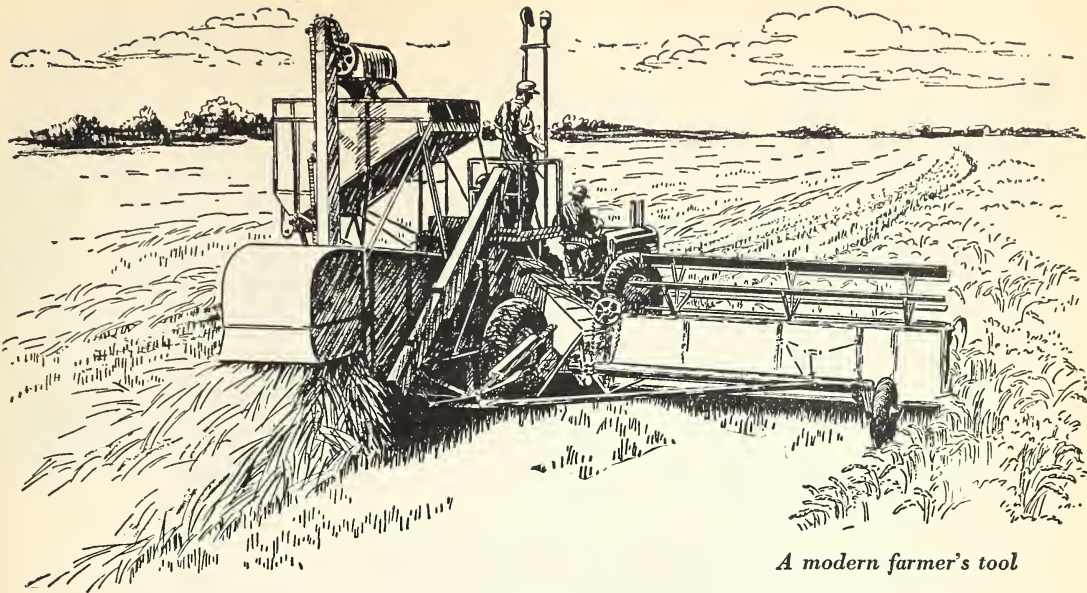
Cyrus' father invented a great many things, but none of them became well known. For a while he worked with his son on a reaper. But soon he gave up the idea. There seemed to be just too many difficulties to overcome. Cyrus, however, knew that such an invention would be very useful to many people.

Cyrus started with some of his father's ideas. But he made many important changes in them. He worked much harder than his father had. The first reaper was completed in the summer of 1831. He tried it out on a neighbor's oat farm. And it worked! For many years after this, the McCormicks sold few of these machines. There were still very few farmers who wanted them.

But just before the War between the States the wide plains of the Middle West were being opened up to settlement. Cyrus McCormick moved from Virginia to Chicago. There he built a

McCormick and his reaper





A modern farmer's tool

large factory and began to make many reapers. He was soon making five thousand machines a year. From Ohio to Minnesota farmers were cultivating the plains, and everywhere at harvest time they were using McCormick's reapers.

Why did he sell so many, and why could he sell them so fast? Because they were good machines, and they were needed badly. Two men with a McCormick reaper could do more than ten times as much work in a day as they could with the old hand tools. A farmer could plant ten times as much wheat. He could sell all the wheat he did not need for his own use to be made into flour. The flour was made into bread to feed the thousands who had left the land to live in the growing cities.

During the War between the States, most men in the North became soldiers. There were not many farmers left to work the land. With McCormick's reapers the North was sure of having harvests large enough to feed its soldiers and its peoples in the cities. But the people of the South were often hungry.

Today's mechanized farms

Gradually, in the years following the War between the States, machines began to be used for the other steps in wheat growing. Today there are many farms in North America on which every step in growing and harvesting crops is done by machine. The number of such farms is growing rapidly each year.

The farmers on these mechanized farms no longer use horses to draw their plows and their harvesters. Tractors do this work now, and they can do it as much as three times as fast. Machines are no longer driven by the muscles of a man or a horse. Power from gasoline engines or electricity has taken over.

These new mechanical servants have made it possible for the farmer to lead an easier and more comfortable life. Fewer men are needed now to grow food. Many who were born on farms have left the land to work in offices and factories. In colonial times almost all the people were farmers. Now more than half live in towns and cities.



The towns were sleepy places

The World We Live In Has Changed Greatly

As people moved westward, they settled first along the travel ways. They settled near rivers, lakes, roads and trails, then along the new railways. Cities and towns sprang up where travel routes came together. There was Chicago, for instance, centre of a network of railways extending west and north and south into the rich plains.

Railways bound the nation together—East to West, North to South, farm to city. Wherever the rails went, better ways of living soon followed. But as little as fifty miles from the tracks, life could be as rough as on the frontier. This was still true in many parts of the United States long after 1890.

There were towns and villages that were not near railroads, of course. But they were sleepy places. Their dirt streets were dusty in the summer and muddy when it rained. Long after there were gas stoves, electric lights, running water, and telephones in the larger cities, life in these towns was still the same.

There are now few such places in the United States. Today people in small towns and on isolated farms enjoy

almost all the benefits that machines have brought. Living in a small town now is not much different from living in a large one. Easy travel has made it easier for people to live closer together. Most of them live lives that are very much alike. This is a great change in the life of the people.

Many things have caused this change, as we shall see, but perhaps the most important is the automobile. For automobiles can go almost anywhere. They do not need to run on rails. Automobiles are cheap enough so that many people can own them and drive them whenever and wherever they choose. Trucks now bring all the products of the cities and factories to the small towns. Buses link together almost all places in the whole country. And these great changes have come in less than fifty years.

Automobiles for all

Like many inventions you will read about in this chapter, the automobile was not first made in the United States. For many years before the first car was built there, men in Europe had been

working on machines that would travel on land without the aid of horses.

Very soon after the invention of the steam engine, men in France and England attempted to put those engines in wagons. Those first steam-driven cars look very strange now. They were slow and clumsy, and they made a great deal of noise. People were afraid of them and tried to keep them off the highways.

Those steam coaches were never very successful. Steam engines were much too heavy and needed too much coal or wood. They could not be put on a wagon unless the wagon was very large. The wheels were made of wood or iron and wore out quickly. The roads were full of bumps and holes. Passengers who were daring enough to try a ride were well shaken up.

What really made the automobile possible was the invention of the gasoline engine. This, in turn, could only be developed after the discovery of the stores of petroleum in the earth.

About the middle of the last century, people in the United States were beginning to light their homes with lamps which burned coal oil. At first there was not much of this oil, for it was pumped up from wells which had been drilled mainly for salt. Then Edwin Drake, who lived in a small town in Pennsylvania, had the idea of drilling a well just for oil. In 1859 he succeeded. Soon many men had drilled wells, and there was enough coal oil for everyone.

Before this oil could be used in lamps, it had to be treated or refined. One of the products of this refining was called gasoline. No one knew of any use for it, and it was usually just thrown away. But it was soon found that gasoline might be used as a fuel in engines. In the 1880's inventors in France and in

Germany were making workable gasoline engines.

These engines were much lighter than those driven by steam. They could run on very little fuel for a long time. It would be possible to put them in much smaller cars. The first cars run by gasoline engines were built in Europe very soon after such engines were first invented.

Soon, inventors in the United States were putting gasoline engines in carriages. They were all working at the same problem, and they were all working separately. Just about the same time several of them succeeded in making a "horseless carriage" that would run. We know that in 1895 there were at least four successful inventors in this field in the United States.

Very soon these new automobiles became popular. But few people could afford to own one. They cost a lot of money. They took quite a long time to build, and most of them were made by men working in their own small machine shops. Those who bought them thought only of racing them—at ten miles per hour—or of going for holiday drives.

Gradually men began to realize that the automobile could be useful, too, for carrying goods and for travel. More and more people wanted to buy them. Men working slowly in their shops could not make as many as were needed. Many of these men were content to go on just making a few cars for a few people. But there were others who saw that a cheap, simple, sturdy automobile that anyone could drive safely could be sold to millions.

Making such a car in great quantities presented many new manufacturing problems. Many men worked at them,

but Henry Ford probably worked hardest. He was certainly the most successful. Ford and the others faced two great difficulties. First, they had to make a good car, and they had to make a machine so simple that anyone could drive it. They had to make such a good car that the owner would not have to make many repairs. They could not expect everyone to be a good mechanic. Second, they had to find a way of making those cars quickly and cheaply, so that they could manufacture great numbers of them.

The car that Henry Ford designed as a solution to these problems was the "Model T." Anyone could run it, and it was cheap. In twelve years he sold more than five million. To make so many, Ford used a new system of manufacturing called mass production. This system is now used to make most of the goods we buy. You will read more about it later in this chapter.

Many changes, of course, have been made in automobiles since the days of the Model T. The automobile industry has kept on growing until now it is one of the largest on this continent. Now there is one car for about every five persons in North America. Think, for a moment, just how different your

life would be if there were no automobiles, no trucks, and no buses. You can see how much these machines have changed the way we live.

Into the air

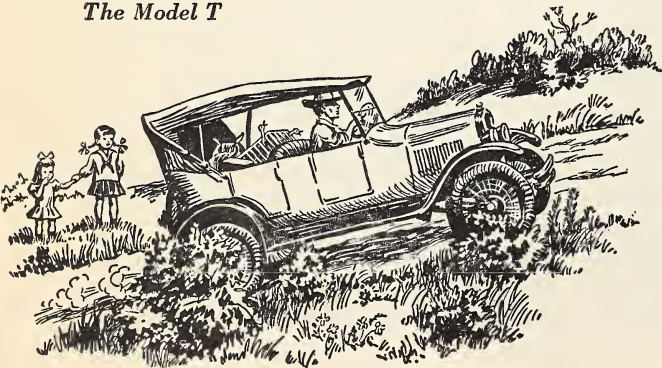
The automobile is now the most commonly used means of transportation in North America. It has changed our lives more than any other machine. But the airplane is probably a more exciting invention to us. Flying through the air is a greater thrill than moving along the ground. The airplane is a little younger than the automobile, but not much. The first airplanes were built on this continent just about ten years after the first automobiles.

Like the automobile, the airplane did not just happen. It took the hard work of many men, Europeans and Americans, before a successful flight could be possible.

Men first learned to float in the air, in balloons, in France, in 1783. Everyone was greatly excited by those early balloon ascensions, as they were called, because it was the first time in history that men had risen into the sky. But these balloons could be moved only by the wind, and it was almost impossible to steer them.

There had to be power to drive the airships. Steam engines were of course too heavy. As in the case of the automobile, the gasoline engine had to come first. Soon after its invention this engine was being used in airships, both in France and in Germany. These first flying machines worked well enough, but they were exceedingly clumsy to fly as well as very expensive to build.

The Model T



But while these first airships were being flown, men in many parts of Europe and America were working on airplanes with wings. Men were floating in gliders which had no engines. The problem was to put an engine in these planes which was powerful enough to make the plane take off from the ground, fly through the air, and go where it was steered.

Most of the early experiments were made in Europe. But the first successful flight was made in the United States.

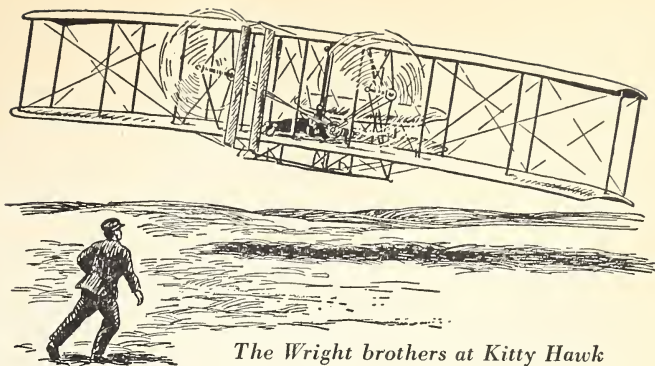
An American named Samuel Langley was one of the first to try. He was a well-known scientist. He had been given a good deal of money by the United States government to build an airplane.

Everyone in the country had heard of his plans. Everyone was reading about them in the newspapers. The first trial flight came in August, 1903. Everyone waited to see the first heavier-than-air machine fly. But Langley's airplane did not work. It crashed. And it crashed again on two other trial flights a few months later.

Then, of course, men laughed. They said that flying could never be done. They thought that airplane inventors were certainly crazy.

We now know that most of Langley's ideas were correct. But he made a few small errors which caused his plane to fail. After the failure he gave up the idea of making an airplane. He was tired and sick. Now he is honored as one of the great pioneers in aviation.

Two other inventors were brothers, Wilbur and Orville Wright, of Dayton, Ohio. They did not make the same mistakes that Langley did. They waited



The Wright brothers at Kitty Hawk

until they had tested, and figured, and measured. They waited until they were almost certain they could build a machine that would stay up in the air.

Then they tried their airplane out. This first trial was also in 1903, just a few days after Langley's last failure. It took place on a beach in Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. There were no crowds to watch. Who wanted to see one more crazy experiment? But this experiment worked. The airplane did not fly far, and it was in the air only a few seconds. But it worked.

Very few people in the United States knew of this success. There were no newspaper stories at first, no awards from the government. The Wright brothers just kept on working, making their airplane better and better. Soon news got around of what they had done. No one in their own country seemed interested. But in France many more people were excited about aviation. There the Wrights soon became famous.

Like the automobile, the airplane at first was no more than an expensive plaything. During World War I daring fliers like Colonel W. A. Bishop proved how valuable planes could be. After the war, peaceful uses were found for the airplane, especially in Canada's northland. There no roads or railways existed. Air transport and travel became common. Soon airplanes became

big and safe enough to carry passengers and mail.

Unlike the automobile, the airplane has not yet become everybody's machine. Most airplanes are used for transport or in war. They are owned by large companies or by the government.

Flying has changed the way we live in many ways, but none of them is as important as the changes brought by the automobile. Airplanes have changed the way wars are fought. They have made it possible to go very quickly from one part of the world to another. It took Columbus ten weeks to reach the New World from Europe. Now it can be done in a matter of hours. The airplane is still a very young invention. It will be interesting to see what changes it will bring in the years to come.

Messages on wires

To most of the pioneers the world did not seem to be much larger than the place where they lived. Unless they lived in a city or a seaport, their life was usually very lonely. If they lived on farms or in small villages, the coming of a stranger was an exciting event. He brought news of the world outside. He could tell of the bustling life in New York or in Boston. He would know new stories, new jokes, and the latest gossip. He might be one of the Yankee peddlers who carried wares from New England to the South and West. He might be a settler, just arrived from the East.

Travellers were almost the only contact between most parts of the United States until after the Revolution. In colonial times there wasn't even an easy way of sending letters. There were no post offices. There were no mailmen. There were no postage stamps.

Letters were frequently carried by friends who were willing to deliver them.

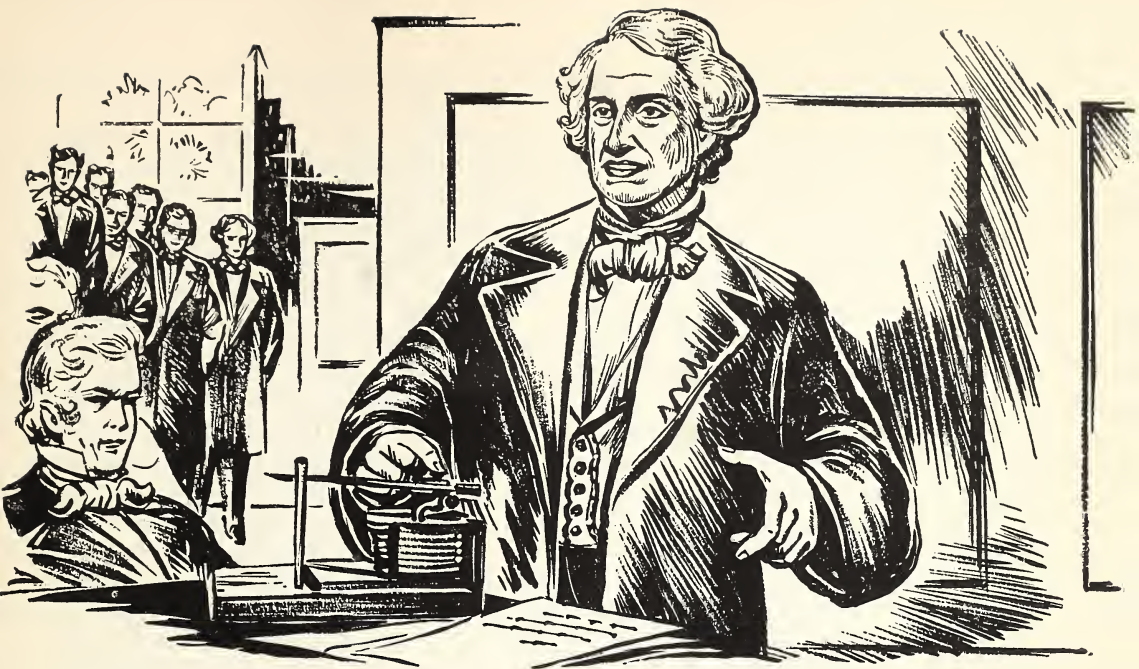
As the population increased, there began to be more trade among the colonies. Soon there was a demand for better mail service, so that buyers and sellers could keep in contact with one another. At first private companies began to carry the mail on regular routes. Then the colonial governments took over the task. Benjamin Franklin was appointed the first colonial postmaster.

The speed of life in the United States was growing faster. As the nation grew in size, there was a greater need for the rapid exchange of news and information between widely separated parts of the country. There was mail service, but it was slow. Was there no other way of sending messages?

For many years, scientists in Europe and America had been experimenting with something new. This was a mysterious force called electricity. In those years they had learned a great deal about how electricity worked. They knew many of the strange tricks it could do. But no one had yet found a way to put this force to useful work.

By 1800 men knew that electricity could be sent over wires. They knew that if the current was turned off or interrupted at one end of the wire, it would stop flowing at the other end. It soon occurred to many men that if those interruptions had a pattern, messages could be sent from one end of the wire to the other.

The idea was a simple one, but it took many years to work it out. Many scientists in Europe and in America worked on the problem. But the man who did more than anyone else to make a system that really worked was not a scientist. He was an American artist, a painter



Morse demonstrates the first telegraph

named Samuel Morse. He was clever enough and hard-working enough to put other men's ideas together. Although he had very few new ideas himself, he found a way to make a telegraph work. We remember Samuel Morse as the inventor of the telegraph.

The first public demonstration of the telegraph took place in 1844, twelve years after Morse began his work. Wires were strung between Baltimore, Maryland, and Washington, the capital of the United States, less than forty miles away. When Morse began to send messages between the two cities, everyone was amazed. It was the first time, really, that electricity had been put to work. It seemed a very wonderful thing that this strange new force could carry messages, with the speed of light.

So many people wanted to send messages by this magical new way that soon telegraph lines were being built all over

the country. The telegraph was used on railroads to signal the position of all the trains. It made regular service possible and cut down the number of accidents. Newspaper owners, especially, were eager to use the telegraph. Now they could get news every day from all over the country.

Morse's invention brought many changes to the United States. Most important, it brought the people closer together. By 1850 the country was almost as large as it is today. It had been hard for representatives in the capital to keep in touch with the people who elected them. They might be hundreds of miles apart. It had been hard for the representatives to know how the people wanted them to vote. By using the telegraph, representatives in the capital could always keep in close touch with every part of the land. This made the country much easier to govern.

In many other ways, great and small, the telegraph made life safer, more democratic, and more pleasant.

The Atlantic cable

Perhaps you remember reading about the Battle of New Orleans, in which Andrew Jackson and his soldiers won a battle after the War of 1812 was over. As long as news could travel across the Atlantic Ocean only by ship, North America and Europe were so far apart that such strange things could happen.

There was a great need for rapid communication with Europe, in peacetime as well as in war. Americans were eager to read fresh news from across the sea. Merchants were eager to send their orders more rapidly.

After the telegraph was invented, men began to think of laying wires under water. About the middle of the last century they began to lay telegraph cables across lakes, rivers, bays, straits, and channels. It was not long before there was talk of laying a cable across the Atlantic Ocean.

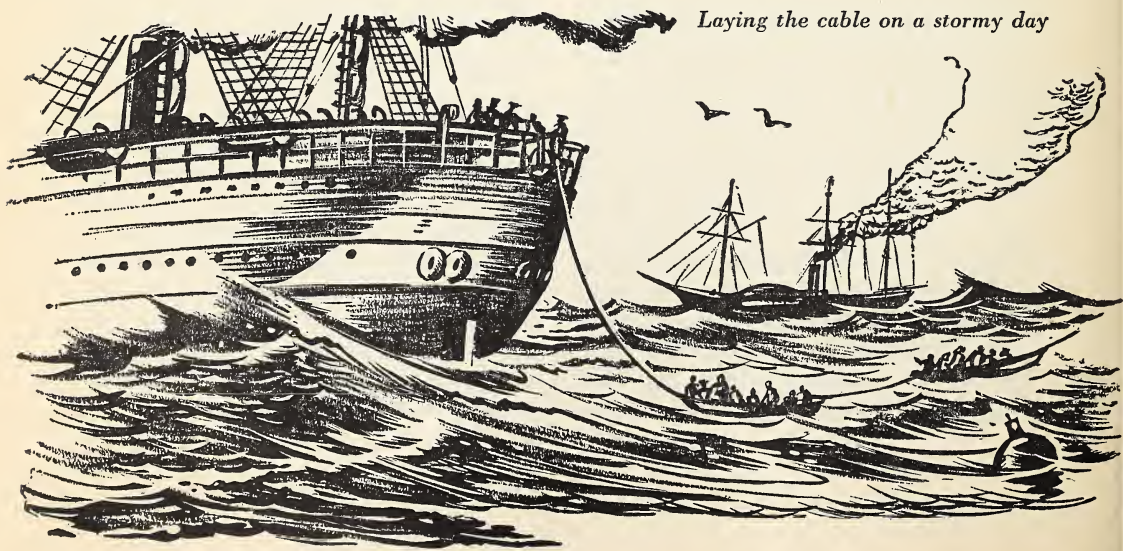
It was much easier to talk of such a plan than it was to make it work. The

man who helped most to make the plan work was Cyrus Field. He was not really an inventor. He was a businessman. He was very wealthy, and men came to him for help when they needed money for a new business.

One day in 1852 several men came to visit Cyrus Field. They were planning to lay a cable from New Brunswick, on the mainland of Canada, to Newfoundland. They needed money to do this, and they had come to Cyrus Field to ask for help. Field looked at a map. It was one that showed both Europe and the Americas, like the map on page 10 of this book.

Field saw that if they could lay a cable to Newfoundland, they might be able to lay one all the way to Ireland. For the route by way of Newfoundland was the shortest route across the Atlantic. It was very close to the one Cabot followed in 1497. Field decided not to bother with the short cable. Linking America and Europe was a much more important task.

Laying such a long cable was not easy. It took more than ten years, and it cost a great deal of money. The work



Laying the cable on a stormy day

was not done by Field alone. Many men, experts in shipbuilding and in the telegraph, had to help. The work was not done by the people of one country. Men of Great Britain and the United States worked together in close co-operation.

Soon Field had organized a cable expedition. Two ships set out from Ireland, one British and one American. The American ship was to lay the cable halfway across. Then the British ship would splice its cable on and complete the task. But three hundred miles from shore, the cable broke, and there was no way to find the end. The ships had to return to shore.

They set out again the next year. And the cable broke again.

But Field and the others were not discouraged. They sent the ships out once more. This time they were successful. Signals came across the cable, from America to Ireland. But they were very weak. They became weaker. Finally they stopped altogether. People on both sides of the Atlantic had been cheering for the great Atlantic Cable. But now many people laughed. Some said that the whole cable scheme was foolish.

The men who had worked for so long on the cable did not give up. They just set to work once more. Now they knew that the cable had to be stronger and better. They had to make sure that an electrical current would flow such a long distance. They had to improve the machinery used to lay the cable so that there was no danger of the cable breaking. For years men on both sides of the

Atlantic tried out new materials and new ways of working. At last they felt sure of success.

This time, in 1866, the cable was laid from a powerful new steamship, the *Great Eastern*. On the first trip the cable broke. This was the last bit of bad luck. On the *Great Eastern's* second trip the cable was successfully laid.

Now messages began to flow between Europe and America. The people of

The first telephone

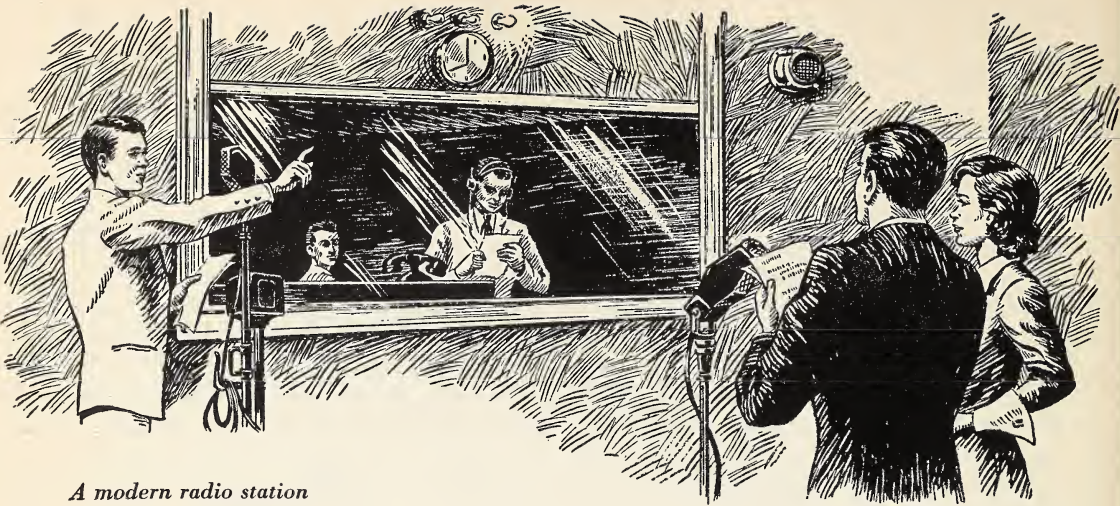


North America soon felt much closer to the people and problems of the Old World.

Electrical voices

The telegraph was the first great step in bringing the people of North America and the rest of the world closer together. It first made rapid communication possible. Now, however, the telegraph is not so important in our daily lives as the telephone and the radio. For these later inventions not only bring messages, they carry men's voices as well.

It would be very difficult to have a telegraph office in your home. But anyone can have a telephone. By picking it up, you can send a message anywhere.



A modern radio station

By 1870 scientists knew that electricity could carry sound. Many men were thinking of methods to make electricity carry voices. But they did not know the way to do it. The first man who found a way that worked was Alexander Graham Bell.

Bell was born in Scotland, where his father and his grandfather had both been speech teachers. From them he learned a great deal about how the human voice worked. When he was a young man, he crossed the ocean to Boston, where he opened a school for deaf children.

For some time Bell had been reading about the exciting new discoveries of what electricity could do. Because he was interested in speech, he thought he would try to find a way to make electricity carry voice sounds.

It was not easy. It took many years of work. Bell did not know very much about electricity at first. He had to study very hard and make a great many experiments.

One day in 1876 Bell was working in his laboratory. In the next room his assistant, who was named Watson, held a receiver to his ear. Bell spoke into

the mouthpiece in his room, and across the wire into the next room went his words. "Mr. Watson, come here. I want you," was all he said. That was the first telephone message. That summer, Bell spoke from Brantford to Paris, Ontario.

But Bell's telephone was still far from perfect. Many men had to work to make the telephone system we know today. Most of these men were experts in sound and in electricity. They were not painters like Morse or teachers like Bell. They had studied for years to become experts. Only such experts, who are called engineers, could work with complex inventions like the telephone.

These engineers do not work separately. They work together, in large laboratories. Together they can solve problems that no man can solve alone.

The telephone has made the world seem smaller in many ways. Now it is possible to hear the voices of our friends, no matter how far away they are. If a businessman needs the answer to an important question in a hurry, he just uses the telephone on his desk. If a farmer or his wife wishes to talk with his neighbor, he uses the telephone.

Words without wires

The radio is a much more complex invention than the telegraph or the telephone. The man who first made it work had to depend upon the discoveries of many scientists from many parts of the world.

By 1890 these scientists had learned that electricity could be sent through the air as well as through wires. If electricity would go through the air, why could not messages be sent this way, too? If no wires were needed, every place on the earth could be linked to every other place.

Men saw that electricity was able to carry messages without wires. But it was harder to find a way to make electricity do so. The man who first succeeded was an Italian named Marconi. He was able to send messages through the air by the year 1896. Soon radios were put in steamships. They made it possible to save the lives of many people when ships were sunk at sea.

These first radio messages were sent by a system of code signals like those used on the telegraph. Sending voices and music through the air proved to be much harder. The first radio station broadcasting for the public did not begin to operate until 1920, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. This was not a very long time ago.

Radio has made communication faster. It links ships at sea and planes in the air with the land. It has brought a new kind of entertainment into almost every one of our homes.

Almost everyone listens to the radio. People all over can hear the same radio programs.

They hear the same songs, the same radio plays, the same comedians. Because of this, the differences between people from the North and the South, the East and the West, are no longer great. No matter where your home is in North America, the way you live is not very different from the way most other people on this continent live. Radio and the other ways of rapid communication have helped to make us all much alike.

Man-made light

Pioneer life, without radios and without power-driven machines, was quieter than life is today. It was darker, too. At night and on wintry days, the rooms of almost every home were lit only by the flickering light of the fire or small candles. Only the rich people were able to afford to burn enough candles to make their rooms bright and cheerful.

The streets of most towns at night were lit only by the moon and the stars. Those who went out on a cloudy night had only the light of a candle lantern. But few people stayed up long after sundown. The rising and setting of the sun ruled most people's lives. They could work only by day, by the light that the sun furnished.

Colonial streets were dark



When night fell, it was like a dark curtain that could not be lifted until morning. Since 1800, men have been steadily pushing back that dark curtain.

In colonial times, about the only kind of artificial light came from candles. Most of these were made at home, as you can see in the picture on page 98.

About the middle of the last century, people in the cities began to light their homes with illuminating gas. There are almost no gaslights now.

People were also beginning to use oil lamps. At first these lamps burned whale oil, taken from whales caught by the daring New England whalers. Soon after petroleum was discovered, everyone stopped using the expensive whale oil. They began to use coal oil, or kerosene, instead.

Not long after the middle of the last century, then, many homes were lighted by gas flames or oil lamps. But not everyone was able to enjoy these new comforts. Gas was piped only to houses in the larger cities, and only the richer people could afford it. Even coal oil was

so expensive that few families could afford to have more than one or two lamps.

These lights made homes brighter. They made streets safer. But they were not very satisfactory. They were expensive. They were smoky, and because they burned with an open flame, there was always danger of fire. People needed lights that were brighter, safer, and cheaper. It was electricity that made such lights possible.

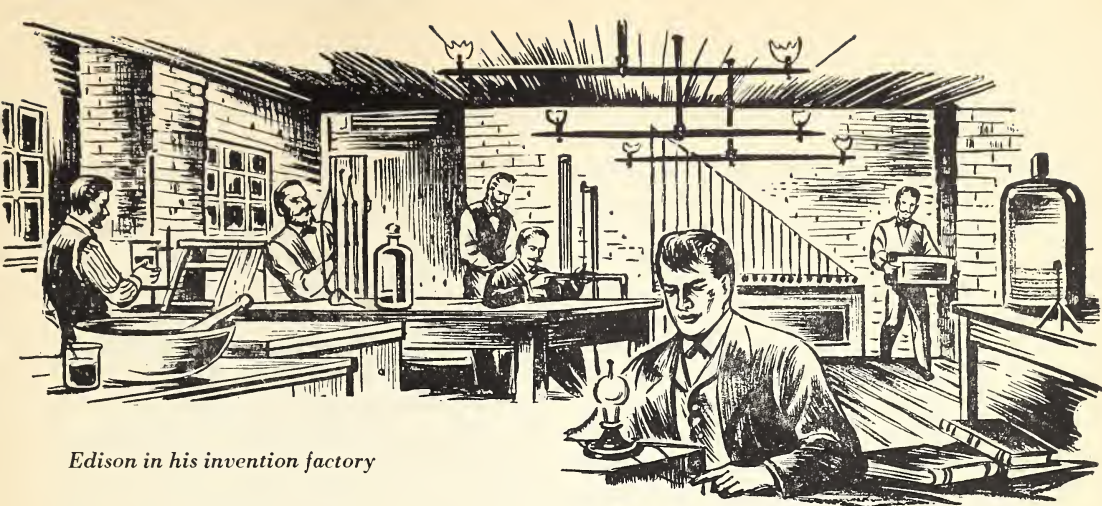
The men who had been studying electricity had learned another of its strange ways. When electrical current flowed through certain materials, it made those materials hot. Some would get so hot that they gave off light, in the same way that a red-hot poker does.

Men began to make use of this power of electricity as early as 1840. The first electric lights, however, were not very practical. They cost too much to be used in private homes. The materials they used got so hot that they soon burned away.

The great problem was to make the electric light practical. Someone had to

Gaslights on a New York City street about 1870





Edison in his invention factory

make it simple, cheap, and safe. The man who found a way to do this was named Thomas Alva Edison. He did not invent the electric light, but he was the first man to make electric light practical.

Samuel Morse was first of all a painter. Alexander Graham Bell was first of all a speech teacher. But Thomas Edison was first of all an inventor. He was never anything else. He is regarded by the people of the United States as the most famous American inventor.

Edison was born in a small town in Ohio in the year 1847. Although he was not a poor boy, he began very early to work, earning money to pay for his experiments. When he was eleven years old, he was selling newspapers on a railway train.

He used the money he made to buy chemicals. In fact, he had a small chemical laboratory in the baggage car of the train. One day the chemicals in the baggage car caught fire, and Thomas Edison very quickly lost his job.

He went on working at other jobs, however, and he went on experimenting. Before long he left his home in Ohio to go to New York City. There he sold his first invention, a machine which

printed telegraph messages. He was paid \$40,000 for this machine.

With this money, Edison did a very wise thing. He set up a small factory in New Jersey. This was not like other factories. It made only new things, inventions. It was the first factory of its kind, a large experimental laboratory. Edison had a great many plans for inventions in his head. But he could not work them out alone. He needed the help of other men and machinery.

Edison realized that many men working together on a problem could do much more than one man alone. Edison and his assistants did a great deal indeed. In that invention factory they made the first workable electric light, the first workable phonograph, the first motion-picture machine, and many other inventions that have changed all our lives.

At the beginning of his career, then, Edison saw that cooperation was necessary. He saw something else that was just as important. He decided that he would work only on inventions that people needed. He would make only those things which he was sure people would buy. He would find ways of making them so cheaply that almost everyone could buy them.

Thomas Edison was not the only man to have this idea. Cyrus McCormick had had it, too. So had Henry Ford and many others. A new idea was abroad in the world—philanthropy in business. For the first time, men realized that machines could be used for the good of everyone. They saw that the new comforts of life should be enjoyed by everyone. They worked to find ways to make their new inventions cheaper and better. They worked to find ways to make so many machines that everyone who needed them could have them.

Now let us see how Thomas Edison used his new ideas to make a better electric light. Men knew that electrical current would make some materials give out light. But no one had found a material which would give out light for a long time without burning up.

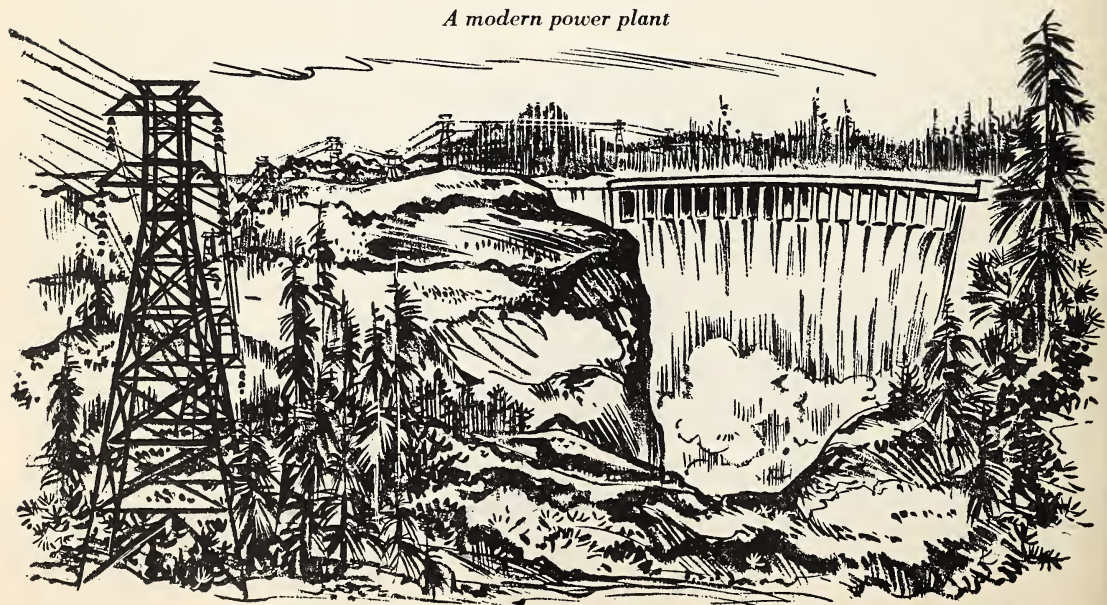
Edison's problem was to find a material that would give out light and last a long time. The only way he could succeed was to try out a great many things. To do this, he needed the help of all the workers in his invention factory.

Finally, in 1880, after many months of experimenting, they found one that worked very well. It was Chinese bamboo which had been heated in an oven until it turned into black carbon. This was placed in a glass bulb which had no air in it. The carbon strip glowed for a long time in its glass bulb. It did not burn because there was no air.

Edison and his helpers had made an electric lamp that worked very well. But one lamp, or a few lamps, would not be useful to very many people. So while some men had been looking for the best lamp material, others had been working on ways to make lamps in large quantities. Very soon after they had made a good lamp, they were able to sell it to everyone who wanted to buy. They had not only invented a good electric light, but they had also invented the machines with which to make it. By 1910, only thirty years after Edison's lamp was first a success, most cities in Canada and the United States were lighted by electricity.

Electricity for the earliest electric lamps came either from large storage

A modern power plant



batteries or from steam engines which made, or generated, the electric power. These batteries and engines were very costly. Edison wanted to put electric lamps into every home, both rich and poor. Yet there was no way that every home could get cheap electricity.

To make it possible for every home to have electricity, Edison perfected the central power station. There huge steam generators made electrical current. Then wires carried the current to all parts of the city. In this way, it was possible to make a great deal of electricity cheaply and sell it at a low rate to all those who wanted it. Soon homes all over the country were being wired for electricity.

So you can see that Edison did more than invent a practical electric light. He and his helpers not only made a new light, but they also found new ways of manufacturing that light, and a way of bringing that light into everyone's home.

New Ways of Manufacturing Are Developed

The inventions you have read about in this chapter are not the concern of just a few people. Almost everyone of us is affected by them in some way. That is why you are reading about them in this book. They have changed the lives of all of us.

You remember that McCormick did more than make a good reaper. He set up a factory to make many reapers. Edison not only made a good electric light but he also worked out ways to make many electric lights. He wanted everyone to buy them. Henry Ford saw that millions of people would buy his Model T if he could just make millions of them.

For each of these inventions, there was a great need. The only way to satisfy

Today electricity does much more than light our homes. It operates many machines which make life easier and more pleasant. It operates radios, irons, heaters, washing machines, stoves, and vacuum cleaners. Outside our homes, it operates most of the machines used in factories and on farms.

Like most new things in the modern world, the use of electricity came to the cities first. It has taken a longer time for it to reach the farms. Much longer power lines had to be built to reach the widely separated farms. Every year more farms are serviced.

In the United States, much of this power comes from dams built in the West and the South. These huge power stations turn the power of falling water into electrical current. This current is sent over wires to be put to work in farms and factories and homes that are often hundreds of miles away.

that need was to discover new ways of manufacturing. The old ways could never make enough of the new machines to supply all those needed.

McCormick, Edison, Ford, and many others who were faced with the same problem, gradually worked out a way of solving it. This way, as you have already read, has come to be called the system of mass production. It is probably the most important change in manufacturing of the past hundred years. And, unlike most of these changes you have read about, it was almost entirely developed in the United States.

Why was mass production developed there first? The stories of the reaper and the automobile give the answer. Nowhere else in the world was machinery

so badly needed as in the United States. When McCormick began to make his reaper, the prairie lands of the Midwest were just being opened for settlement. Soon there were many acres of wheatland to be harvested and very few men to do the work. In Europe and New England farms had been small. They had been cultivated for generations. In the Midwest one man's land was often more than he could work. So the demand for McCormick's machine was suddenly very great.

The same was true of the automobile. In most parts of Europe the towns are close together. People are never far from their neighbors. In the United States, as in Canada, the open spaces are wide. The distance from town to town is often more than a long day's walk. The automobile was needed by millions of people all over the country.

The demand for other inventions was like the demand for the reaper and the automobile. For a long time, in fact, the need was so great that men believed it could never end. The United States is a large country and a very rich one. It is rich in food crops, in oil, in metals.

For a long time there were not nearly enough men to work the land, to build the cities, to work in the mines.

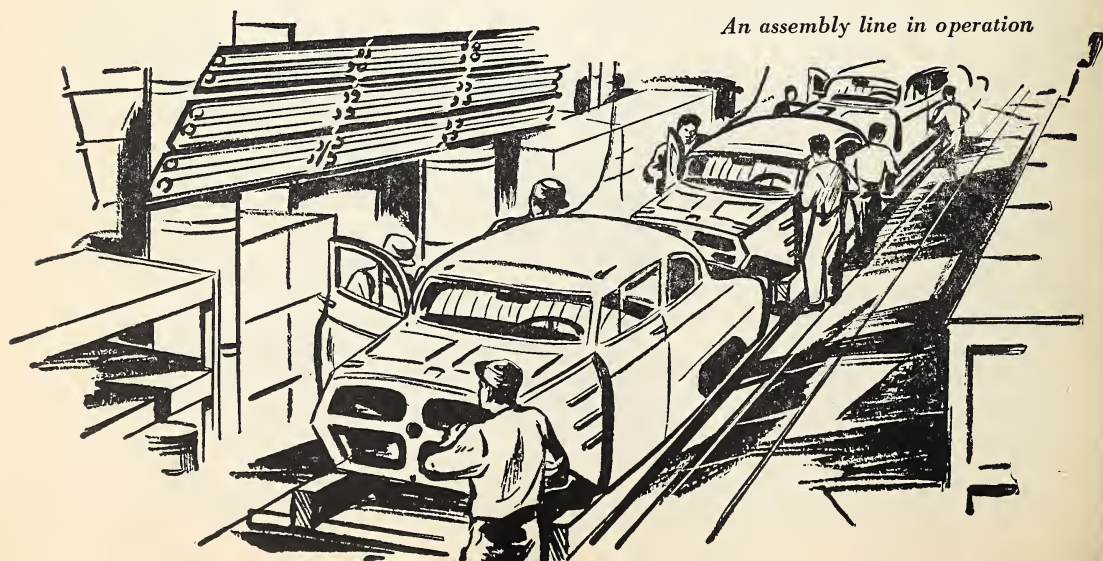
Machines were invented to help the men. Because the land was so large and the men to work it were so few, the need for machines was very great.

A modern factory

The best way to understand mass production is to see it at work. Imagine that you are standing in a large automobile factory. You are in a long hall, near the place where the automobiles are coming off the assembly line.

The assembly line, where the parts of the cars are put together, runs the length of the hall. A line of cars is moving very slowly down the hall. At the far end of the line, there is no more of the car than the frame. Gradually, as each frame moves down the line, the parts are added. The wheels, the body, the motor, the steering wheel, the inside seats are all fitted in place. At the near end of the line, each car is driven away, ready to be sold.

Along the line many men are working. Each man has one small job to do,



and just one. He does not move from his position. As the cars are moved slowly past him, he does exactly the same thing to each car. It may be his job to put on the left front wheel. As each car moves up to him, he tightens the nuts on its left front wheel. That is all he does, all day long. Car after car, wheel after wheel. Because he does only one job, he can do it very well and very quickly.

The wheels come to him from another moving line, like a small stream flowing into the main river. The wheels and the engines and the bodies have all been put together in the same way. They have been made in other places and are now moving to join the other parts of the completed car.

All of the cars that come off the assembly line today will look exactly alike. All of the wheels, the engines, the bodies are exactly alike. Every part fits perfectly with every other part. All of the lines carry their parts smoothly to the final assembly line. The final assembly line moves smoothly down the length of the hall. At its end, the finished automobiles drive smoothly away.

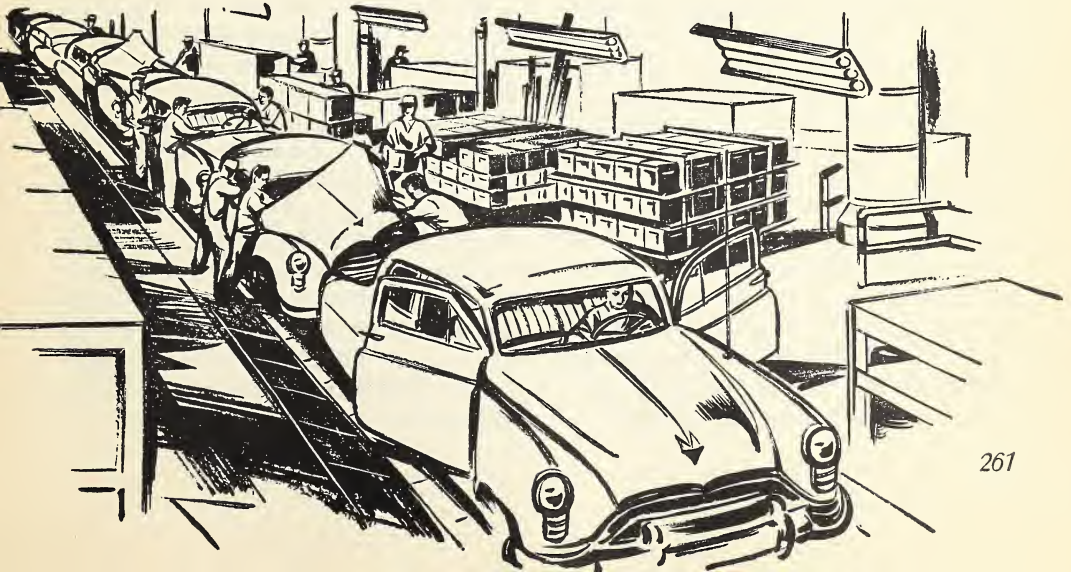
Everything in the great hall seems to be moving without a stop. The assembly line never has to stop as long as the men are there and the materials are there. When one group of workers leaves to go home, another group is standing ready to take its place. The men come and go, but the great machine which is the assembly line keeps on moving.

The materials which make up the car are moving steadily toward the main factory by rail and ship and truck. Frames from one plant, wheels from another, engines from a third, are flowing in a steady stream. All of these parts are made by machine. All of them are transported by machines.

Because machines make the parts, all the parts of one kind are exactly alike. A wheel or a headlight will fit all the cars of the same model.

Today, factories making most kinds of goods work in the same way as the automobile factory. Whether they manufacture radios or clothing or bread or electric lights, factories use the system of mass production.

It is the fastest and cheapest way of making goods that man has ever known.



It is easy to see why this is so. First of all, no time is wasted and no movement is useless. The men just stand in one place, waiting for their work to be carried to them on conveyor belts. They have only one thing to do. They waste no time going from one job to another.

Second, machines do almost all of the work. Except on the final assembly line, when men must do jobs that machines cannot be made to do, almost every step in making goods is done by a machine alone. One man, perhaps, will be watching many machines to see that they are running smoothly. These machines can work many many times faster and better than men.

Third, each machine and each worker does just one very small part of the whole task. Because it is done over and over, without any change of motion, the work can be done very fast. In a clothing factory, for instance, one worker operates a machine that cuts out dresses to a pattern, cutting many at one time. Each step in the sewing is done by a separate machine. Another worker attaches collar and trimmings. Another presses the finished dress. In the time it takes a woman to make a dress at home, a clothing factory can turn out hundreds of copies of the same dress, all exactly alike.

In every way possible, machines and planning save time and save men's labor. The need for this is great. But working it out is not easy.

Like the inventions you have read about, the mass-production system did not just happen. Nor was it the work of one man alone. Parts of it were worked on for many years. But the most famous use of the system was Henry Ford's production of the Model T. Mass production was in full use by 1914.

Mass production is now being used to increase output in many parts of the world. Soon after the news of Ford's factory spread, engineers from many countries went to Detroit. They wanted to learn about Ford's system. They went back to their own countries to build great plants like those in Detroit. Mass production now is bringing new ways of living to many countries.

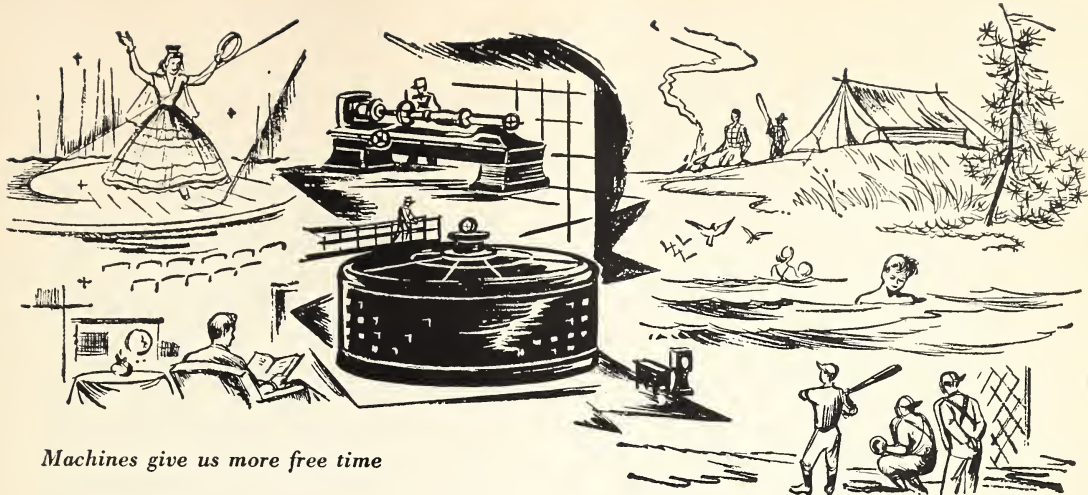
Our new problems

Until very recent times, most men had to spend almost all their waking hours at work. Like the farmers of colonial times, their work day was from sunrise to sunset. In their long working day they could do little more than earn enough to keep themselves and their families alive.

Only a few men had leisure time—time when they were free from the burden of hard labor. These were the men who were rich enough to have servants or slaves to work for them. In 1833 slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire. In 1865, after the War between the States, the Thirteenth Amendment ended slavery in the United States.

In the United States there are not so many servants as there used to be. Yet most people now have leisure. Most people work only eight hours a day, instead of ten or fourteen. Many people need not work on Saturday and Sunday.

Machines have brought about this great change. They are our slaves. They are like mechanical giants, much stronger than any man. Their power—of electricity or gasoline or steam—does the work that had to be done by the strength of human muscle in earlier times. They have taken over most of the hardest tasks.



Machines give us more free time

When machines do much of man's physical labor, man can turn his attention to other things. We need fewer farmers now to grow our food. We need fewer factory workers to make the goods we need. And this means that there are more people to do the other important kinds of work. In that way the world can become an even better place in which to live.

There are more machines in North America than in any other part of the world. But in every country machines are slowly changing the people's way of life. Until all the people of the world enjoy the benefits that machines can bring, there will not be this same improvement for all. Until every nation in the world enjoys the benefits which machines have brought to most of us, the people of the world will not be free.

For machines bring men freedom. They can bring men freedom from hunger. They can bring men freedom from fear of being poor or alone. Most important, they can bring the freedom of mind that comes only when men are not slaves to their work. They can then work for the benefit of all.

Machines have brought benefits to farmer and factory worker alike. Be-

cause they have more leisure now, they are free to do as they choose for many hours each week. They are free to study or read. They are free to build furniture or make model trains. They are free to paint or make pottery, to play the piano or the clarinet, to swim or dance, to go to the ball game. More and more people are free, for some hours of the day, to do what they like to do best.

So, you see, machines are changing life for all of us in many ways. They are bringing us closer together. They are bringing us closer to the peoples of the rest of the world. They have made our lives easier. We can have more freedom than men have ever enjoyed if we use machines well.

The world is always changing, and each new change brings new problems. Men must still learn how to use machines to bring peace instead of war, to build and not destroy. Men must still learn how to put machines to work for the good of all, rich and poor, here and in the rest of the world. Men must still learn how to use their new leisure well. These are some of the greatest problems we face today, and no one can say just how or when they will be solved.

A Happier and a Healthier Life for All

Living was not easy for the people who settled North America. With no machines, almost everyone had to work hard and long with his hands to stay alive. And everyone, whether he had to work or not, faced the same dangerous enemy. The enemy was not the Indian, for most Indians were peaceful people. It was disease. Even those who did not fear hunger feared disease. For disease, in those early days, took many more lives than it does now.

Twenty-five of Cartier's one hundred ten men died of scurvy in 1536. Only fifty of the one hundred Pilgrims who landed at Plymouth Rock in 1620 lived until the spring. Hunger and cold killed some, but most of them died of disease.

The colonial family that you see pictured on pages 102-103 looks happy and healthy. The children in that family were fortunate. In almost every home in those days, at least one child died young, from pneumonia, tuberculosis, or smallpox. All these diseases were much more dangerous then.

Even small injuries like a cut or a splinter in the foot could be dangerous then. Now healing small wounds is simple. You take out the splinter, clean the wound, bandage it, and keep it clean. If there is a chance of infection, you call the doctor. He may give you an antitetanus shot. He may give you penicillin or another drug to cure the infection. In a few days the wound is healed.

But in colonial times, and even fifty years ago, the story might have been very different. An infected wound could be a very dangerous thing. There were not very many doctors. The doctors did not know what caused infec-

tions. They knew very little about how to cure them. They had very few medicines, and those they had did little good. An infected wound could cost a boy's or girl's life.

Today doctors know how to prevent and cure most kinds of sickness. They are learning how to treat others, like cancer and heart disease. A child born today can expect to live fifteen years longer than a child born in 1900. This is because doctors have learned how to defeat the child's most dangerous enemy, disease.

Conquering disease

Everyone knows now that many diseases are caused by germs. Everyone knows that germs are most likely to breed in sewage and garbage. They breed in water that is not pure, and in wounds that are not kept clean. Everyone knows that many diseases can be given by one person to another.

Because we now know the causes of most diseases, we can avoid getting them by removing the causes. But it was less than one hundred years ago that men began to discover the causes of disease. Before that time diseases were common because germs were common, and no one knew how to kill the germs.

In many ways, cities and towns in North America a century ago were not very nice to live in. Almost no homes had running water. No homes had inside toilets. Garbage and sewage filled the streets. In many towns, hogs wandered through the streets, feeding on the garbage.

When men learned that clean towns were healthier towns, they began to change their ways. Cities like New York

and Boston built huge tubes, or aqueducts, to bring water from lakes and rivers in the country. They built sewage systems to carry away waste, so that the streets might be clean. Gradually, at first in the cities, people began to put bathrooms in their homes. Many began to buy bathtubs. Most people thought they were a new invention, but the Romans had used them more than a thousand years before.

As sanitation grew better, people grew stronger and healthier. Men began to insist that their food be clean and pure. They passed laws requiring meat and canned foods to be inspected. They passed laws to make sure that milk was free from germs.

Now the diseases that are carried in impure food, impure drinking water, and sewage are almost unknown on this continent. In many parts of the world, especially in Asia and Africa, they are still great dangers. People in those lands are learning how to prevent them by making clean cities. Some day there may be no such diseases anywhere in the world.

About the same time that the cities and towns were being cleaned up, scientists in Europe and America were learning about another way to prevent many diseases. First they discovered what germ caused a disease. Then they made sure that a person would not get a serious case of the disease by giving him a very weak case first. They could make people *immune* to some diseases by giving them *vaccinations* or *inoculations*. Now, in Canada and the United States, almost every child must

be given "shots" for several diseases. Because of this discovery, we no longer need fear smallpox, or diphtheria, or tetanus.

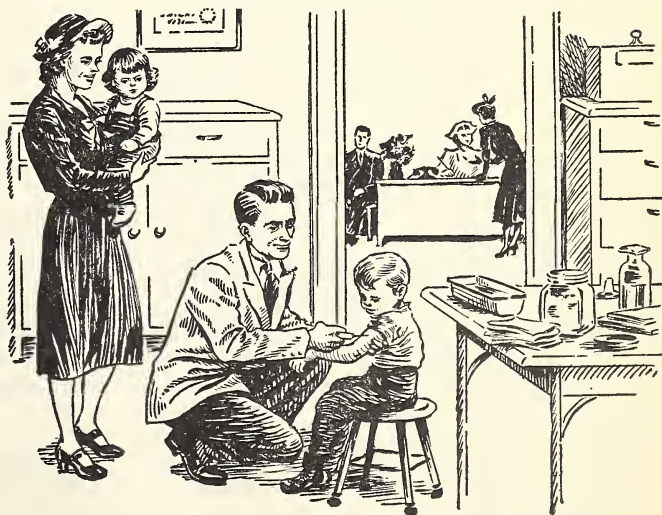
In many other ways doctors, using the discoveries made by scientists in their laboratories, are working to prevent and cure disease. Regular health examinations, regular dental care, x-rays to detect tuberculosis, quarantines, and new drugs like penicillin are all helping to conquer disease. With them we all may lead healthier lives.

The work of the doctors will not be finished until everyone here and all over the world can benefit from their care. Some of the people think that our governments should help to do this. Others think that private doctors and hospitals can do it better. But everyone agrees that it must be done.

Conquering hunger

Disease has always been one of man's greatest enemies. Hunger is another. For thousands of years, men have feared

A doctor is a friend to all



hunger even more than disease. There are very few countries in the world, even today, where everyone has enough to eat. In all lands until just a few years ago, even those people who had enough to eat had very little idea of what to eat. Many suffered from diseases like rickets, which softens the bones, because they did not eat enough of the right things. Now, because doctors know just what foods a healthy body needs, such diseases can be prevented and cured quite easily.

The governments of most of the nations of the world now help in many ways to make sure that their people eat well. Doctors and nurses are sent to poor communities to teach people what to eat. Many schools serve healthful lunches to the pupils who might otherwise not have a good diet. Food is sent from countries where there is more than enough, to countries in Europe and Asia, where there has rarely been enough.

In the past few years, scientists have learned to make some kinds of food in their laboratories. These foods, or vita-

mins, are added to the foods we eat to make them more healthful. Vitamin D is added to milk. Vitamin B is added to white flour and bread.

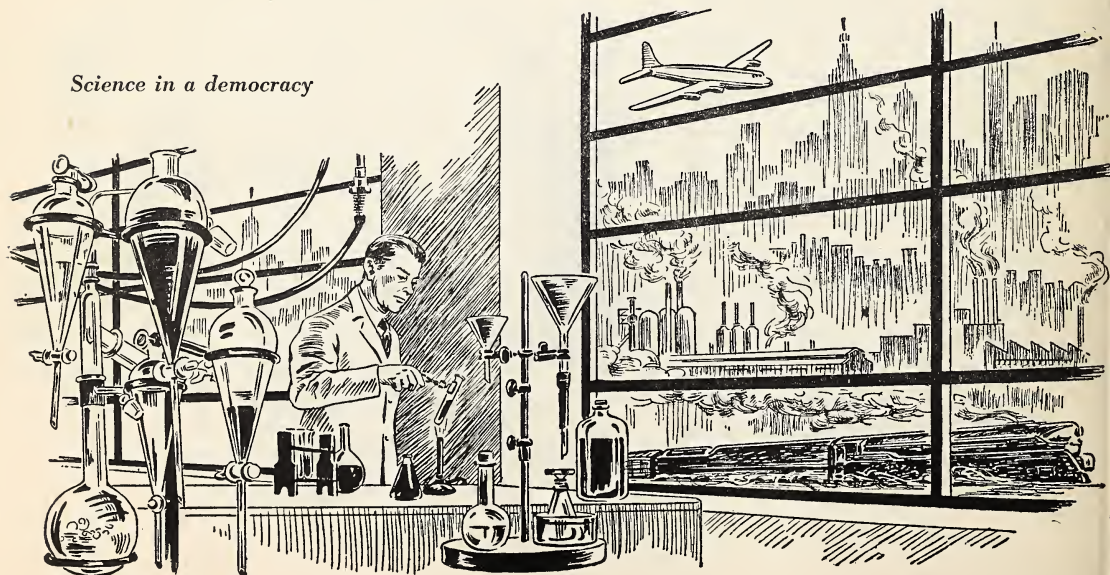
Because of these changes in what they eat, the health of people is improved. Children are taller and huskier now than they were fifty or a hundred years ago. You are quite likely to be taller and stronger than your parents when you are fully grown.

An educated people

People are healthier and stronger now because men have learned the causes of health and sickness, strength and weakness. They have been able to learn so much because they have been able to study and to experiment.

To become a doctor or a scientist, you must study for many years. For a long time there were very few colleges or universities in the United States to teach doctors and scientists. They began to be set up a few years before the Revolution, but it was nearly a hundred years before there began to be enough good schools to serve the country's needs.

Science in a democracy



The graduates from these schools went to work in every section of the country. Many became doctors like the doctors you know. Others spent their lives in laboratories, looking for the causes of disease, seeking for ways of curing disease. Some of these men became famous. Most did not, but their work is just as important as if they had. By working together at the problem of conquering disease and by sharing their knowledge, scientists have made our good health today possible.

Just as doctors and scientists must go to school for many years, so must engineers, lawyers, teachers, and many other kinds of workers. For each special kind of work there are now many special schools.

But today almost everyone, whether or not he chooses such a special kind of work to do, goes to school while he is young. Almost every child goes for eight years. Most finish high school. More and more young people are going on to college.

In the early days of North America, few children learned more than reading, writing, and arithmetic, and many did not even learn that. Many people did not have the pleasures that an education can bring. Many people were cut off from the chance to do their best work because they could not read and so could not learn to do new things.

Now everyone believes that all people have the right to an education. Every person has the right to do the kind of work he chooses to do. Once people had to pay to go to school, and those who could not pay had no way of going. Now, in the United States, as in Canada, grade schools are free. Many states support colleges which can be attended at a low cost. And students who

cannot pay are often helped with gifts of money called scholarships. Many of the great leaders received their education through the aid of scholarships.

The way of democracy

The great changes in ways of living that you have read about in this chapter were made by men. For it is men who invent machines, men who make them, and men who use them. Men, working in laboratories or at sickbeds, have made the discoveries which give us greater health. Men have worked to make it possible for every child to have the chance to study and learn what he chooses to learn.

All the men you have read about in this chapter have followed the way of democracy. They worked for the good of all, not for just a few. They worked to share their knowledge and their new inventions with all who needed them.

They were free to work as they chose, and they chose to work for the benefit of everyone. Their work has helped to make us more free. We are becoming free of the burden of unending labor, free of the fear of disease and hunger. We are becoming free to work out our own lives as we choose. We are becoming free to use our knowledge and our riches not only for our own good but for the good of the world.

More and more people are beginning to believe that every man has the right to enjoy these freedoms. More and more believe that so long as some men remain unfree, the world cannot be at peace.

Canadians and Americans have become good neighbors, enjoying freedom and peace. Working with others in the United Nations, the citizens of both countries can help to bring freedom and peace to all people.

The History Workshop

You have been reading a chapter that is mainly about inventions. Inventions are very important because they changed the way people lived. You will want to relate the story of invention in the United States with that of Britain and Canada.

When was the invention made?

On page 213 you were asked to make a new kind of time chart. Now you can make the same kind of time chart to show when inventions were made. You should add a few inventions that you read about in earlier chapters.

Your time chart should start with 1760 and go on to the present time. Mark it off in equal spaces, with each space standing for ten years.

First put on your time chart events that have something to do with important inventions. Put each one in the correct ten-year space on the right-hand side of the chart. Here is a list of events in the United States that you might like to use:

- First use of television
- Invention of the Newbold plow
- Invention of the John Deere plow
- Invention of the McCormick reaper
- First use of automobiles in the United States
- First successful airplane flight
- First telegraph message between two cities
- Successful laying of the Atlantic cable
- First telephone message
- First radio messages
- First radio broadcasting station
- Drilling of first oil well
- Edison's invention of electric lamp
- First Model T Ford (First use of complete mass-production methods)
- Invention of the cotton gin
- Voyage of the *Clermont* (Beginning of the use of steamboats in America)
- First use of steam locomotives on American railroads

Now you are ready for the left side of your time chart. You will find some events in the world history outlines. Others you will recall from your study of the history of Canada, such as Bell's first long distance message, from Brantford to Paris. Encyclopedias like *Compton's*, the *World Book*, and *Britannica Junior* have articles on Invention which will help you. You may wish to include medical discoveries like insulin, x-ray, vaccination, penicillin, etc.

Who did it?

At the left below is a list of inventions. At the right is a list of inventors. Match the inventions with the names of their inventors.

telegraph	Morse
airplane	Wright
reaper	Edison
electric lamp	Bell
telephone	McCormick

Your community history

Find out when your community got its first telegraph line, its first telephones, its first electric lights, its first sewer, its first airport. Maybe you can find out when most of the great inventions came to your community. What difference did each one make to the people living there?

A great many people in your community can tell you about a time when there were no radios and no passenger planes. Older people can remember when there were no automobiles or electric lights. They can also tell you how much less people used to know about how to stay well. Perhaps you can find someone who remembers when there were no telephones in your community. For this last part of your history, the best information you can get is what you can learn from people who remember. They actually saw the changes you have learned about.

Interesting Books to Read

(The following books are recommended by the Boys' and Girls' House, Toronto Public Library)

GENERAL READING

- Baity, Elizabeth C. *Americans before Columbus*. Viking. A panorama of the civilizations that flourished in the Americas from the Ice Age to the coming of the white man.
- Hartman, Gertrude. *These United States and How They Came to Be*. Macmillan. The information on social life and customs is imaginatively presented.

PASSAGE TO AMERICA

- Log of Christopher Columbus' First Voyage to America in the Year 1492, The*. Scott. This day-to-day record of events as they took place, gives an impressive first hand picture of the first voyage.
- Coatsworth, Elizabeth J. *Door to the North*. Winston. Story of the 14th century Norse expedition to America.
- Hodges, C. Walter. *Columbus Sails*. Coward-McCann. A vivid and dramatic account of Columbus' first voyage and the discovery of America.
- Kingsley, Charles. *Westward Ho!* Scribner. A glorious tale of the English sea dogs who went out to "sing the beard of the King of Spain" along the coasts of the New World.
- Lambert, Richard S. *Franklin of the Arctic*. McClelland & Stewart. The search for the North West Passage.
- Pyle, Howard. *Howard Pyle's Book of Pirates*. Harper. "Fiction, fact, and fancy concerning the buccaneers and marooners of the Spanish Main."
- Scott, J. M. *Hudson of Hudson's Bay*. Methuen.
- Shippen, Katherine B. *Passage to America*. Harper. An account of the great migrations to the United States, and of the background and contributions of these peoples to American culture.
- Shore, Maxine. *Hero of Darien*. Longmans. A picturesque and convincing biography of Balboa.

HOMES IN THE NEW WORLD

- Barksdale, Lena. *That Country Called Virginia*. Knopf. Early Virginia and the contributions of Virginians from the Revolution right up to the present day.
- Bauer, Helen. *California Mission Days*. Doubleday. The chain of missions throughout California that began with the work of Junipero Serra. A fine picture of Indian and missionary life.
- Bennett, John. *Barnaby Lee*. Appleton-Century. A tale of action and suspense with the attack of the English on New Amsterdam as the focal point.
- Bradford, William. *Homes in the Wilderness*. Scott. Retold from the journals of the gallant company who sailed in the Mayflower.
- Criss, Mildred. *Pocahontas: Young American Princess*. Dodd.
- Duvoisin, Roger. *The Four Corners of the World*. Knopf. "The unbelievable adventures of Francisco Pizarro."
- Gaither, Frances. *The Painted Arrow*. Macmillan. The unusual adventures of a French boy who sails with the brothers Iberville to found a French colony on the Gulf of Mexico.
- Garst, Shannon. *Three Conquistadors: Cortez, Coronado, Pizarro*. Messner. Presents a sympathetic picture of the native peoples, and, at the same time, develops the characters of the three explorers.
- Gray, Elizabeth. *Beppy Marlowe of Charles Town*. Viking. A brother and sister leave their London home to face a strange new world in the colonial Charleston of 1715.

- Lang, Andrew, ed. *The Conquest of Montezuma's Empire*. Hale. Lang has simplified Prescott's account of the Conquest, keeping it vivid and exciting.
- Lide, Alice A. *A Princess of Yucatan*. Longmans. Adventures of a Mayan girl in Yucatan under Aztec rule.
- Meadowcroft, Enid L. *The First Year*. Crowell. The first strenuous year of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England is pictured through the eyes of some of their children.
- Newcombe, Covelle. *Cortez the Conqueror*. Random. A dramatic and vivid account of Cortez' career in the New World. The pictures illustrate the text with a real feeling for Mexican art and pageantry.
- Prescott, William H. *The Conquest of Mexico*. Doubleday. A detailed history of the conquest; accurate illustrations bring to life the early Aztec civilization.
- Pyle, Howard. *The Story of Jack Ballister's Fortunes*. Appleton. The adventures of a young man who was kidnapped in 1719 and carried to the plantations of Virginia, where he fell in with the famous pirate, Blackbeard.
- Repplier, Agnes. *Pere Marquette: Priest, Pioneer and Adventurer*. Doubleday. The life of the man who discovered the Mississippi.
- Seaman, Augusta H. *Little Mamselle of the Wilderness*. Macmillan. La Salle's ill-fated attempt to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi is traced through the mysterious story of a little French girl.
- Trachsel, Myrtle Jamison. *Elizabeth of the Mayflower*. Macmillan. Based on William Bradford's "History of the Plymouth Plantation," this story of problems faced by the Pilgrims centres around a young English girl.

GROWTH OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

- Bakeless, John. *Fighting Frontiersman; the Life of Daniel Boone*. Morrow.
- Choate, Florence and Curtis, Elizabeth. *The Crimson Shawl*. Lippincott. The life of the Acadians who were transported to New England.
- Cooper, James F. *The Deerslayer*. Scribner. The adventurous life of Indian and white scouts in New York State about 1745. This is the first of the Leatherstocking Tales.
- Lenski, Lois. *Indian Captive; the Story of Mary Jemison*. Lippincott. Captured by the Indians in 1758, Mary Jemison chose to spend the rest of her life with the Seneca tribe. A good picture of frontier life at the time of the Seven Years' War.
- MacDonald, Zillah K. *Flower of the Fortress*. Westminster Press. A young Huguenot boy joins Sir William Pepperell's New England army in 1745 and plays a courageous part in the capture of Louisbourg.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION

- Boyd, James. *Drums*. Scribner. The fortunes of Johnny Fraser who leaves the brilliant life of eighteenth century London to go to the seething colonial life of the Southern States of Revolutionary Days.
- Chambers, Robert W. *Cardigan*. Harper. An adventurous tale of the American Revolution, which gives a vivid picture of early colonial days, and ends with the Battle of Lexington and the wedding of the hero and heroine.
- Clark, Thomas D. *Simon Kenton, Kentucky Scout*. Farrar. The defence of Kentucky by scouts and frontiersman during the Revolution. An excellent picture of pioneer and Indian life.

- Edmonds, Walter D. *Wilderness Clearing*. Dodd. A young boy and girl face unusual personal responsibilities during an episode of the Indian warfare in the opening of the Revolution in northern New York.
- Forbes, Esther. *Johnny Tremain*. Houghton. A Boston apprentice takes part in the "Tea Party" and runs errands for Paul Revere, Samuel Adams, and other "Sons of Liberty."
- Gray, Elizabeth J. *Meggy McIntosh*. Viking. Meggy runs away from Edinburgh to find adventure in the Scottish settlement in the Carolina of pre-Revolutionary days.
- Raddall, Thomas H. *Son of the Hawk*. Winston. A Canadian family faces conflicting loyalties in the American revolutionary attempt to seize Nova Scotia, the key to all Canada.
- Widdemer, Margaret. *Prince in Buckskin*. Winston. The story of Joseph Brant at Lake George.

WAR BETWEEN THE STATES

- Edmonds, Walter D. *Cadmus Henry*. Dodd. Young Cadmus Henry, of the Confederate Army, has an unexpected view of the Battle of Yorktown from a balloon.
- Meadowcroft, Enid L. *Abraham Lincoln*. Crowell.
- Sandburg, Carl. *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*. Harcourt.
- Stowe, Harriet Beecher. *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Life on a southern plantation before the Civil War.
- Swift, Hildegard H. *The Railroad to Freedom*. Harcourt. How a negro girl escaped from slavery and the underground railway by which she led her friends to freedom.
- Twain, Mark. *Huckleberry Finn*. Grosset. Ragged, carefree "Huck" Finn drifts down the Mississippi with the runaway slave Negro Jim. A classic boyhood story and an interesting approach to the period of the War between the States.

THE PEOPLE OF LATIN AMERICA

- Baylor, Frances C. *Juan and Juanita*. Houghton. Two Mexican children, kidnapped by Indians, escape and fend for themselves during a long desert journey.
- Fleming, Peter. *Brazilian Adventure*. Scribner. The story of the search for a man who disappeared into the Brazilian jungle in search of a "lost" city.
- Fodor, Lazlo, ed. *Brazil*. Hastings House. Brief historical and geographical facts are followed by photographs which comprise the larger part of the book. There is a similar book on Argentina.
- Gill, Richard C. *The Story of the Other America*. Houghton. A brief history of South America, giving a general picture of the political and traditional resources. There are sketches and excellent picture maps.
- Judson, Clara. *Soldier Doctor; The Story of William Gorgas*. Scribner. The life of the man who conquered yellow fever told against a background of frontier life, the Spanish-American War, and the building of the Panama Canal.
- Morris, Ann A. *Digging in Yucatan*. Doubleday. The author has put into print some of her own spirit of adventure and enthusiasm for the romance of Mayan civilization.
- Rothery, Agnes. *Central American Roundabout*. A travel book of Central America that brings out the differences and similarities between Central and North American ways of life. *South American Roundabout*, by the same author, is similar.
- Smith, Susan. *Made in Mexico*. Knopf. Here is all the handwork of Mexico, pottery, baskets, toys, weaving, with historical backgrounds and legends.
- Van Loon, Hendrik W. *The Life and Times of Simon Bolivar*. Dodd. This colorful figure is portrayed against an historical background that is somewhat complicated. But it presents a forceful picture of colonial Spain.

- Waldbeck, Jo B. *Jungle Journey*. Viking. This is the story of the author's journey into the interior of British Guiana.

WESTWARD EXPANSION

- Bosworth, Allan R. *Ladd of the Lone Star*. Aladdin. Ladd Merrill's exciting adventures as a despatch rider for General Sam Houston and in the defence of the Alamo.
- Carr, Mary J. *Young Mac of Fort Vancouver*. Crowell. Life in the far western Hudson's Bay Post of Fort Vancouver, Washington, in the year 1832.
- Coffman, Ramon P. *Famous Pioneers for Young People*. Barnes. A useful collection of biographies ranging from Buffalo Bill to Brigham Young.
- Garst, Shannon. *Kit Carson, Trail Blazer and Scout*. Messner. A vivid biography of the man whose pioneer spirit, gift for leadership, and courage brought him fame as a scout and trail-blazer of the West.
- Garst, Shannon. *Sitting Bull*. Messner. The story of the great Sioux chief who fled to Canada with his tribe rather than face life on a reservation provided by the white man.
- Grey, Katharine. *Rolling Wheels*. The long, heroic trek from Indiana to California of pioneers who left civilization behind to explore "farther west."
- Jackson, Helen H. *Ramona*. Little. An enthralling romance and a sympathetic picture of the Spanish and Indian culture in Lower California just after it became an American possession.
- Lundy, Jo E. *Seek the Dark Gold*. Winston. An adventure story based on the rivalry in 1810-1812 between the North West Fur Company and the Pacific Fur Company established by John Jacob Astor.
- Matthews, Etta L. *Over the Blue Wall*. University of North Carolina Press. The explorers and pioneers pushing westwards beyond the Appalachian Mountains.
- Montgomery, Richard G. *Young Northwest*. Random House. The Pacific Northwest from the days of the early explorers and Indians to the coming of the "iron horse."
- Parkman, Francis. *The Oregon Trail*. Little. An exciting account of frontier travel during a trip from St. Louis to Oregon in 1864.
- Seymour, Flora W. *La Salle, Explorer of our Midland Empire*. Appleton.
- Skelton, Charles. *Riding West on the Pony Express*. Macmillan. Jeff Harlow, one of the plucky lads who rode through storm and ambush with the precious mails linking East to West, has the exciting task of carrying the news of Lincoln's election and of the Civil War.
- Sperry, Armstrong. *Wagons Westward, a Tale of the Santa Fe Trail*. A lively, sometimes bloodthirsty, but thoroughly satisfying account for older boys and girls.
- White, Stewart E. *Daniel Boone, Wilderness Scout*. Doubleday. Recounts the perils and achievement of a life spent in exploring the trackless wilderness and opening up pioneer settlements.

TECHNICAL AMERICA

- Patterson, John C. *America's Greatest Inventors*. Crowell.
- Reed, W. Maxwell. *America's Treasure*. Harcourt. An eminently readable description of the origin of the natural resources of the United States.
- Stevenson, O. J. *The Talking Wire, the Story of Alexander Graham Bell*. Messner.
- Strack, Lilian H. *Nickel*. Harper. Historical background as well as modern processes of production of a metal important to Canadians. *Aluminum, Asbestos, and Radium*, are similar books with emphasis on Canadian production.

Index and Pronouncing Vocabulary

Pages on which pictures are to be found are marked with a star (*).

Key to pronunciation: *ā*, as in *āte*; *â*, as in *senâte*; *â*, as in *câre*; *ä*, as in *äm*; *ǣ*, as in *finǣl*; *ā*, as in *ärm*; *ā*, as in *āsk*; *ā*, as in *sofā*; *ē*, as in *ēve*; *ē*, as in *crēate*; *ē*, as in *ēnd*; *ē*, as in *novēl*; *ē*, as in *cindēr*; *ī*, as in *īce*; *ī*, as in *ill*; *ī*, as in *charīty*; *ō*, as in *ōld*; *ō*, as in *ōbey*; *ō*, as in *lōrd*; *ō*, as in *ōdd*; *ō*, as in *cōnnect*; *ōō*, as in *fōōd*; *ōō*, as in *fōōt*; *oi*, as in *oil*; *ou*, as in *thou*; *ū*, as in *pūre*; *ū*, as in *ūnite*; *ū*, as in *ūrn*; *ū*, as in *stūdy*; *ŷ*, as in *circŷs*; *ŷ* indicates the nasal tone, as in French, of the preceding vowel; *g*, as in *go*; *th*, as in *that*.

- Acadia** (*ā-kā'dī-ā*), 83, 93
Acoma (*āk'kō-mā*), 34-35*
Adams, John, 120, 122
Adams, Samuel, 119, 120
Africa (*āf'rī-kā*), 11-13
Agriculture. *See* Farming
Airplanes, 238, 248-250, 249*
Alamo, the (*āl'mō*), 163*
Albamarle Sound (*āl'bē-mārl*), 74
Allegheny River (*āl'ē-gā'nī*), 95
Amazon River (*ām'ā-zōn*), 219
America (*ā-mēr'ī-kā*): discovered by Vikings, 4; named, 16; reached by Columbus, 14-16. *See also* Exploration, Middle America, and South America
Andes Mountains (*ān'dēz*), 219, 225*
Annapolis (*ā-nāp'ō-lis*), 74
Appalachian Mountains (*āp'ā-lāch'ī-ān*), 138*
Argentina (*ār'jēn-tē'nā*), 225
Armada, Spanish, 50
Articles of Confederation, 122-123, 126
Asia (*ā'shā*), 5; new routes to, 7-17, 85-86
Assembly: colonial, 112-113, 114; crown colonies, 71-72; Virginia, 53, 70, 118*
Astor, John Jacob, 186-188
Astoria (*ās-tō'rī-ā*), 187*-188
Astrolabe (*ās'trō-lāb*), 12
Atlantic cable, 252*-253
Atlantic Coastal Plain (*āt-lān'tik*), 93
Atlantic Ocean, 12-13, 14
Austin, Moses, 189
Austin, Stephen, 162, 189-190
Automobiles, 238, 239, 246-248*, 260*-261*, 262
Avalon, 60
Aztecs (*āz'tēks*), 21-22, 23*, 32-33, 42-43
Balboa (*bāl-bō'ā*), 18*-19*
Baltimore (*bōl'tī-mōr*), 74, 158, 161
Baltimore, Lord, 61
Baranof, Alexander, 181
Bell, Alexander Graham, 254
Benalcázar (*bā'nāl-kā'zār*), 218
Bering, Vitus, 233
Berkeley (*būr'kē*), 67-68
Bermuda, 120
Bill of Rights, 129
Bishop, Colonel, 249
Bolívar, Simon (*bō-lē'vār*), 223-224*, 225; map, 222
Bolivia (*bō-liv'ī-ā*), 225
Boone, Daniel (*bōōn*), 110, 138-140
Boonesborough, 140
Boston (*bōs'tūn*), 56, 157
Boston Tea Party, the, 119
Bradford, William, 55
Brazil (*brā-zīl'*), 25, 217, 225-226
Bridger, Jim (*brīj'ēr*), 194-195
Britain, 72, 83, 98, 112-115; and Dominion of Canada, 234-235; and Oregon Country, 162, 202-203; and South America, 221, 223, 224
British Columbia, 233
Brock, Sir Isaac, 148
Buccaneers, 226-227
Buffaloes, 32, 36, 171*, 194, 205
Bukhara (*bōō-kā'rā*), 7-8
Burgoyne, General (*būr-goin'*), 123-124
Cabot, John (*kāb'ūt*), 16-17*, map, 10
Cabral (*kā-brāl'*), 25; map, 25
Cabrillo (*kā-brēl'yō*), 172-174
California (*kāl'ī-fōr'nī-ā*), 172-180, 203-204; map, 178
Calverts, 60-61, 71
Canada, 110; boundary agreements, 136-137 (map), 149, 188; dominion formed, 233; during American Revolution, 121; government of, 234-235; joint defence of, 232, 235; relations with U.S., 149, 233, 234; in War of 1812, 148, 233-234; Alaska Dispute, 233; relations with Great Britain, 233-235. *See also* Quebec; Montreal
Candle making, 98*
Cape of Good Hope, 13, 25
Carolina (*kār'ō-lī'nā*), 71
Carson, Kit, 197-198, 201
Carteret (*kār'tēr-ēt*), 67-68
Cartier, Jacques (*kār-tyā', zhāk*), 36-37, 53, 264; map, 28-29
Carver, John, 55
Carver. *See* China

- Cattle:** brought by Spaniards, 43, 220; in California, 182*, 183; in Southwest, 150-151*, 190*, 209-212
- Céleron** (sâl-ron), 95
- Cermenho** (sêr-mê'nyôo), 175
- Champlain, Lake** (shâm'-plân'), 83
- Champlain, Samuel de**, 53, 83-85; map, 84
- Charles I**, 60
- Charles II**, 60, 67
- Charleston** (chârlz'tŭn), S. C., 75-77*, 161
- Charles Town**, 71, 75. *See also* Charleston
- Chesapeake Bay** (chês'â-pêk), 50, 52, 67; map, 51
- Children:** New England villagers', 102-103*, 103-104; wealthy planters', 99-100
- Chile** (chê'lâ), 217-218, 225
- China:** early trade with, 5; the Polos in, 8-9; U. S. trade with, 134
- Christophe, Henri**, (krê-stôf'ônrê); 228-229
- Church, New England**, 104-105, 104*
- Cibola** (sê'bô-lâ), seven cities of, 33-34
- Cincinnati** (sîn'si-nât'ŷ), 146*
- Cities and towns:** Charleston, 77, 76-77*; Cincinnati, 146*; Jamestown, 51-52*; Lima, 220*; New Amsterdam, 59*; New England village, 102; New Orleans, 90; New York, 100-102, 101*, 159-160; Philadelphia, 69-70*; Salt Lake City, 202*; Santa Fe, 176*; Spanish city in Mexico, 41*, 43; Spanish towns in South America, 220*-221; Civil War, 164-167
- Clark, George Rogers**, 124
- Clark, William**, 145
- Clermont**, 153*-154
- Clinton, De Witt**, 159
- Clothing:** in New England village, 102*, 103; in New France, 92, uniforms of colonial army, 120-121*; uniforms of English army, 111*; of wealthy planters, 99
- Colombia** (kô-lôm'bê-ä), 218
- Colonies, Thirteen American:** farming in, 52, 56, 70-71, 72, 75-78, 82, 90-91; founding and settlement of, 49-61, maps: 51, 54, 58, 66, 68, 75, 123; government of, 53, 71-72, 105, 112-119; life in the, 64-67, 71-105; manufacturing in, 74, 79-80, 82-83; population, 73, 81, 115; separation from Britain, 125; trade, 52, 66, 74-81, 82-83, 116-119; union, early attempts at, 119-120, 122-123; wars with Indians, 110-111, 113. *See also* Seven Years' War and Revolution, American
- Colony**, definition of, 15, 71
- Columbia**, the (kô-lŭm'bi-ä), 134*
- Columbia River:** discovery of, 134, 181-182; exploration of, 185-186
- Columbus, Christopher** (kô-lŭm'bŭs, kris'tô-fêr), 2, 13-16, 15*, 45, 250; map, 10
- Company of New France**, 85
- Compass**, 12
- Conestoga wagon** (kôn'ês-tô'gä), 142*-143, 159
- Confederate States of America**, 165
- Congress, United States**, 127, 128, 132, 156
- Connecticut** (kô-nê'tŷ-kŭt), 58
- Constitutional Convention**, 126-129, 128*
- Continental Congress**, 119-120, 122, 126
- Cooper, Peter**, 161
- Corn**, 24, 30, 32, 51, 55*, 56, 95, 151, 190
- Cornwallis, General** (kôrn-wôl'ŷs), 125
- Coronado, Francisco Vasquez de** (kô-rô-nâ'dhô, frân-sê's'kô vâs'kêz dâ), 27, 33-36, 172; map, 28
- Cortés, Hernando** (kôr-täs', êr-nân'dô), 20-22*
- Cotton**, 133*, 151-154
- Cotton gin**, 152*, 238
- County**, 146
- Coueurs de bois** (kôo'rûr'dê bwâ'), 86-88, 87*
- Cowboys**, 209-212, 211*
- Croatoan** (krô'tân'), 50
- Crusaders**, 6-7*
- Cuba** (kŭ'bä), 15-16, 229
- Cumberland Gap** (kŭm'bêr-lând), 139
- Cuzco** (kôoz'kô), 23
- Dare, Virginia** (dâr), 50
- Darien** (dä-rê-ên'). *See* Panama
- Davis, Jefferson**, 165
- Dawes, Charles** (dôz), 120
- Declaration of Independence**, 122
- Deere, John**, 243*
- Delaware** (dêl'ä-wâr), 69
- Delaware River and Bay**, 58, 67-68
- De Smet, Father** (dê smê't'), 199
- Dessalines, Jacques** (dês-ä-lên', zhâk), 228
- De Soto** (dê sô'tô), 27-32, 229; map, 29
- Diaz, Bartholomew** (dê'âz, bâr-tô'lô-mew), 13; map, 6
- District of Columbia** (kô-lŭm'bi-ä), 132
- Drake, Edwin**, 247
- Drake, Sir Francis** (drâk), 47-49, 48*, 50, 162, 174
- Duquesne, Fort** (dôô-kân'), 96
- Dutch**, the. *See* Netherlands; New Netherland
- Dutch West India Company**, 58-60

- Edison, Thomas Alva**, 257*–259
- Education.** *See* Schools
- El Camino Real** (əl kă-mē'-nō rā-äl'), 177, 179; map, 178
- El Dorado** (əl dô-ră'dô), 218
- Electricity**, 250–251, 255, 256
- Electric light**, 239, 256–259
- Elizabeth I**, 49–50
- Emigrant train**, 199–201, 200–201*
- Empire, British**, 119
- England** (ɪŋ'glənd): colonies, 49–58, 51 (map), 54 (map), 60–61, 67–81, 84 (map); explorations, 16–17, 46–50; relations with Spain, 47–49, 50; wars with Dutch, 60. *See also* Britain
- Ericsen, Leif** (ēr'ik-sūn), 2
- Erie Canal** (ēr'ri), 158–159*, 159–160
- Eskimos**, 4
- Europe**, 4–7, 11
- Exploration:** along coast of Africa, 6 (map), 11–13, 25; of California, 177–179; of Columbia River, 185–186; by Columbus, 10 (map), 14–16; of Florida, 26–30; of the Great Lakes, 85–86; of Hudson Bay, 93; of the Hudson River, 58; in Kentucky, 139; of Mexico, 20–22; of Mississippi River, 88–90; of Missouri River, 184–185; of North American Atlantic coast, 16–17*, 46–47, 83–85; of Pacific coast, 172–175, 183; of Panama, 18–19; by Polo, Marco, 6 (map), 7–9, 8*; routes of early explorers to Far East, maps: 6, 25; routes of explorers in the Americas, maps: 10, 28–29, 84; of the St. Lawrence, 36–37; of South America, 22–24; of the Southwest, 30–36, 177–179; by Vikings, 4–5; voyages around the world, 19–20, 25 (map), 47–49. *See also* names of explorers
- Factories**, 260*–262, 261*
- Fall line**, 93
- Farming**, 238–239, 241–245; in California, 180*, 199*; Indian, 30–31, 34, 56; in middle colonies, 82*; in New France, 90–91*; in northern colonies, 78, 113*, 240; in the South, 52, 70–71, 72–75, 151; in Spanish colonies, 18, 41–43, 220; in the West, 212*
- Ferdinand, King** (fūr'di-nānd), 14, 16
- Ferreo** (fēr-rē'lō), 174
- Field, Cyrus**, 252–253
- Findley, John**, 138–139
- Fishing:** by English, 17, 92; by French, 53; by New Englanders, 78–79, 157*
- Flag, American**, 125–126
- Flatboats**, 143–144*
- Florida** (flôr'iz-dā): discovery and exploration of, 26–30, 27*; sold by Spain, 136–137 (map), 150; Spanish settlement of, 44*–45; under English rule, 96
- Food:** in early colonies, 50–52, 65; of farmers in New France, 91; Indians', 34, 36, 37; in middle colonies, 82; in New England, 56, 78, 104; of pioneers, 95, 139; in Spanish colonies, 41, 42–43; of Spanish explorers, 16, 27–28, 32, 36
- Ford, Henry**, 248, 262
- Fountain of Youth**, 26
- France:** in the American Revolution, 124; colonies, 37, 45–46, 83–93, 84 (map), 91*, 228; explorations, 36–37, 83–90; and Louisiana territory, 144; trade, 53, 85–88*, 89; wars with England, 92–93, 95–96, 148
- Franklin, Benjamin**, 119, 122, 124, 126, 128, 250
- Fraser, Simon**, 183; map, 174
- Frémont, John C.**, 201
- Frontier**, 94, 161, 170–171, 205, 213
- Fulton, Robert**, 153–154
- Fur trade:** at Dutch trading posts, 58; by French, 53, 85–88*, 89; at Hudson Bay, 93; in New England colonies, 57; by Russians, 92, 181; in South Carolina, 75–76; in the West, 134, 139, 147, 154, 181–182, 186–188, 194–197
- Gadsden Purchase**, 164, 206; map, 136–137
- Gasoline engine**, 247, 248
- George II**, 78
- George III**, 116, 123
- Georgia** (jôr'jyā), 78
- German settlers**, 70, 82, 95
- Ghent, Treaty of** (gěnt), 149–150
- Gold:** captured by Drake, 47; discovered in West, 203–204, 207*; in New World, 16, 18, 26; Spanish search for, 217–218; used by Indians, 21, 22, 42
- Golden Hind**, the, 49
- Government:** of Brazil, 226; of Canada, 232, 234–235; colonial, 15, 53, 71–72, 105, 112–113, 114–115, 122–123; Constitution, 126–128; Ordinance of 1787, 146; of Spanish colonies, 15, 221
- Governor**, definition of, 15
- Grand Banks**, the, 17
- Grand Canyon**, 35
- Grant, Ulysses S.**, 167
- Gray, Robert**, 134–135, 182
- Great Eastern**, 253
- Great Lakes**, 37, 85–86, 89, 159
- Great Migration**, 149, 189, 200–201*
- Greenland** (grēn'lānd), 4
- Griffin**, the, 89
- Grosecilliers** (grô-să-yā'), 86, 93
- Habitation**, 83
- Haiti** (hă'ti), 227–229
- Hamilton, Alexander**, 129
- Hancock, John**, 120

- Harrison, William Henry**, 147
- Harrod, James**, 139
- Heceta** (ā-sā'tā), 181-182
- Henderson, Richard**, 139-140
- Henry, Patrick**, 118, 119
- Henry, Prince**, 11-13
- Henry VII**, 46
- Hidalgo, Miguel** (ē-dāl'gō, mē-gāl'), 221
- Hispaniola** (hī'spān-yō'ld), 16, 227, 229
- Hooker, Thomas**, 57
- House of Commons**, 60
- House of Lords**, 72
- House of Representatives**, 127
- Houses**: adobe pueblos, 34; building a blockhouse, 141*; farmhouse of New France, 91*; frontier cabin, 165*; of Jamestown settlers, 51; of New England village, 102-103*; of Pilgrims at Plymouth, 55; Scottish-Irish pioneer's farm, 95; of Spanish cities in Mexico, 43; wealthy southern planters', 99*
- Houston, Sam** (hūs'tūn), 163, 190-191
- Howe, Admiral**, 123
- Howe, General**, 123-125
- Hudson, Henry**, 58, 92-93
- Hudson Bay**, 93
- Hudson River**, 58
- Hudson's Bay Company**, 93, 110, 188
- Huguenots** (hū'gē-nōts), 45
- Hutchinson, Anne**, 57
- Illinois country**, 90
- Incas** (īng'káz), 22-24, 42-43
- Indentured servants**, 72-73*
- Independence Hall**, 127*
- Indian Boundary Line**, 112, 113, 191-194*, 198; map, 174
- Indian country**, 170-171, 191-194
- Indians**: during American Revolution, 124, 138; in California, 179-180; in Florida, 27-31; life of, 30, 34, 36, 40*, 41*, 191*; loss of territory, 108-112, 147, 149, 150, 205, 212-213; of Mexico, 21-22, 32-33, 42-43; movement of eastern tribes, 191-194*; named by Columbus, 15-16; in Northwest, 184*-186, relations with English colonists, 53, 55-56, 61, 69; relations with French, 37, 53, 85-88; of South America, 22-24, 42-43, 219-220; in Southwest, 33-35*, 36; treatment by Spanish, 21-24, 27-30, 42-44; tribal organization, 30; trouble with, 176, 196-197, 204-205; wars with settlers, 85, 111, 146-147, 149-150
- Indies, East**, 5, 16
- Indies, West**, 26, 81
- Indigo**, 77, 78, 81, 90
- Industrial Revolution**, 151-152, 238
- Inns**, 97, 159
- International Joint Commission**, 234
- Inventions**: automobile, 247; cotton gin, 152; electric light, 256; printing press, 11*; radio, 255; railroads, 160*-161; spinning machine, 152; steam engine, 135, 152-153, 160-161; telegraph, 207-208; telephone, 254
- Iron and steel**, 80, 83
- Isabella, Queen**, 14, 16
- Jackson, Andrew**, 150
- Jamaica**, 227
- James River**, 51-52
- James I**, 50
- Jamestown** (jānz'toun), 50-52*, 64
- Jefferson, Thomas**, 119, 122, 129, 132-135, 144-145
- Jersey, East and West**. *See* New Jersey
- Joliet, Louis** (zhō'lyě'), frontispiece, 88-89; map, 84
- Kentucky** (kěn-tūk'ī), 138-140, 141
- Key, Francis Scott**, 148
- Kitty Hawk, N.C.**, 249
- Laclede, Pierre** (lā-klēd', pyēr), 154
- "Land of Cod,"** 17
- Langley, Samuel**, 249
- La Salle** (lā sāl'), 89-90; map, 84
- Latin America**. *See* Middle America; South America
- Latitude**, 12, 67
- La Fayette, Marquis de** (lā-fā-yet', mār-kē'), 125
- Le Boeuf, Fort** (lē bēf'), 95
- Lee, Jason**, 198-199
- Lee, Robert E.**, 166
- Levee**, 90
- Lewis, Captain Meriwether**, 145
- Lewis and Clark expedition**, 145, 184*-186, 185*; map, 136-137
- Lighting**, 98, 247, 255*-259
- Lincoln, Abraham**, (līng'-kǎn), 164-167, 165*, 166*
- Line of Demarcation**, 24-26; map, 25
- Livingston, Robert**, 153
- London Company**, the (lūn'dǎn), 50, 53, 54, 71
- "Long Hunters,"** 139
- Louisiana** (lōō-ě'zē-ān'd), 109, 154; purchase of, 136-137 (map), 144-145
- L'Ouverture, Toussaint** (lōō-vēr-tūr', tōō-sān'), 228
- Loyalists**, 121-122, 125
- Lumber and lumbering**, 51, 66, 79
- McCormick, Cyrus**, 244*-245
- Machines**, 237*, 238-239*, 240, 241, 246-250, 251-252, 254, 255, 261, 262-263*
- Mackenzie, Alexander**, 183; map, 174
- McLoughlin, John**, (māk-lōk'līn), 188, 197, 198, 205

- Madison, James**, 126, 148
Magellan (mă-jěl'ăn), 19-20, 26; maps, 10, 25
Maine, 156-157
Maine, the U.S.S., 229
Majority, 127
Manhattan Island, 59
- Manufacturing**: colonial, 74, 79-80, 82-83; growth of, 152-154, 157-158, 247-248, 259-262, 260*
- Maps**: Alaska, 223; Alaska boundary dispute, 223; American revolution, campaigns of, 123; California, early settlements in, 178; Chesapeake Bay area, settlement of, 51; eastern North America, settlements in before 1760, 66; explorations and settlements in the Americas before 1760, 84; great West, trails and settlements in, 174; historical development of United States to 1871, 192-193; Line of Demarcation, 25; New England area, settlement of, 54; New Jersey and Pennsylvania, settlement of, 68; New Netherland area, settlement of, 58; Oregon country, settlement of, 183; Portuguese and Spanish settlements in New World, 43; routes of early explorers to Far East, 6, 25; routes of explorers in the Americas, 10, 28-29; South America, 222; southern colonies, later settlements in, 75; territorial expansion of United States, 136-137
- Marconi** (măr-kō'nē), 255
- Marquette, Father Jacques** (măr-kět', zhāk), frontispiece, 86, 88-89; map, 84
- Marshall, James**, 203
- Maryland**, 61
- Massachusetts** (măs'ă-chōō'sēts), 56
- Massachusetts Bay Company**, 56
- Mass production**, 248, 259-262, 260*
- Mediterranean Sea** (mēd-ī-tēr-rā'nē-ăn), 11-12
- Mexico** (mēk'sī-kō): conquest of, 20-22; northern territory, 92, 136-137 (map), 161, 190; Spanish settlements in, 32-33; in Texas war, 162-164, 190-191, 202; wins independence from Spain, 161, 221. *See also* Gadsden Purchase
- Michigan** (mīsh'ī-găn), 160
- Michilimackinac** (mīsh'ī-lī-măk'ī-nō), 87
- Middle America**, 216. *See also* Mexico and Panama
- Middle colonies**, 81-83
- Middle West**, 145-147, 243-245
- Mills**, 80, 82-83
- Mining**, 42*, 80, 207, 219*
- Minuit, Peter** (mīn'ū-it), 59
- "Minutemen,"** 120
- Miranda, Francisco** (mē-răn'dă, frăn-sē'skō), 221-223
- Missionaries and missions**, 21; in California, 135, 177, 178 (map), 179-180*, 196; in New France, 85-86; in Oregon country, 162; St. Augustine, in Florida, 45; in Southwest, 92; Spanish, 43; Whitman mission in Oregon, 198-199, 204-205
- Mississippi River** (mīs'ī-sīp'-ī): claimed for France, 90; discovered by De Soto, 31*-32; explored by Marquette and Joliet, 88-89; settlements along, 90-91; trade on the, 144
- Missouri**, 154-156
- Missouri River**, 145, 184
- Mohammed** (mō-hăm'ēd), followers of, 5-6
- Monroe, James** (mŭn-rō'), 144; Doctrine, 229
- Montcalm, General** (mōnt-kām'), 96
- Monterey Bay** (mōn'tē-rā'), 175, 178, 179
- Mont Réal** (mōn rā-ăl'), 37*
- Montreal** (mōn'trē-ōl'), 85, 88, 183, 228
- Morgan, Sir Henry**, 227
- Mormons**, 162, 201-202; map, 174
- Morro Castle** (mōr'rō), 227
- Morse, Samuel**, 251*
- Motion pictures**, 238
- Mount Vernon**, 129, 132
- Napoleon Bonaparte** (nă-pō'lē-ăn bō'nă-pärt), 144, 147-148
- Narragansett Bay** (năr'ă-găn'sēt), 57
- Nassau, Fort** (năs'ō), 58
- Nationalities**, 81, 114-115*, 115-116
- Netherlands** (nēth'ēr-lăndz): colonial wars with England, 60; colonies, 58-60, 58 (map), 68; explorations, 58; trade, 50, 58
- New Amsterdam**, 59*
- Newbold, Charles**, 242-243
- New England**: church, 104*-105; farming, 78; life in, 55-56, 102-105, 240; manufacturing and trade in, 79*-81*, 80*, 157; settlement of, 54-58, 54 (map); town meetings, 105; trouble with Dutch colonies, 60
- Newfoundland** (nū'fănd-lănd), 17, 36, 60, 92, 119
- New France**. *See* France: colonies
- New Granada** (gră-nă'dă), 218, 223, 224
- New Jersey**, 67-69; map, 68
- New Netherland** (nēth'ēr-lănd), 59-60; map, 58
- New Orleans** (ôr'lē-ănz), 90-91, 144; battle of, 150
- New Sweden** (swē'dēn), 60, 68
- New York**, 60, 67
- New York City**, 100-102, 101*, 159-160

- Niagara Peninsula**, 125
- Nicolet, Jean** (nê-kô-lâ', zhân'), 85-86
- North America**: maps, 28-29, 84, 192-193. *See* Explorations; Colonies
- North Carolina**, 71, 74-75
- Northwest**. *See* Oregon country
- North West Fur Company**, 186-188
- Northwest Ordinance**. *See* Ordinance of 1787
- Northwest Passage**, 46-47
- Northwest Territory**, 146
- Nova Scotia**, 118
- Ogden, Peter Skene**, 205
- Ogdensburg Agreement**, 235
- Oglethorpe, James**, 77-78
- Ohio River and Valley** (ô-hî'ô), 95, 143-144, 146, 156
- Oklahoma**, 213
- "Old Ironsides,"** 149*
- Old San Antonio Trail**, 189; map, 174
- Old Spanish Trail**, 198, 201; map, 174
- Orange, Fort**, 58-59
- Ordinance of 1787**, 146, 156
- Oregon country** (ôr'ê-gôn): boundary agreements, 136-137 (map), 188, 202-203; exploration of, 184*, 185*-186*; farming in, 198*; settlement of, 162*, 183 (map), 199-201, 200-201*
- Oregon Trail**, 195, 199, 203; map, 174
- Overland Trail**, 206*, 207, 208-209*
- Pacific Ocean**, 18-19*, 20, 175
- Palestine** (pâl'ês-tîn), 5-7
- Panama** (pân-â-mă'), 16, 18
- Panama, Isthmus of**, 19
- Pan American Union**, 226
- Paris, Treaty of** (pâr'is), 96
- Parliament**, 15, 72, 114, 116, 126
- Patroon**, 59
- Pedro, Dom** (pê'drô), 226
- Penn, William**, 69*-71, 70*
- Pennsylvania** (pên'sil-vă'-nî-â), 69-70, 82; map, 68
- Perry, Oliver Hazard**, 148-149
- Petroleum**, 247
- Philadelphia** (fil'â-dêl'-fî-â), 69-70, 158
- Philippine Islands** (fil'î-pên), 20, 26, 175
- Phillip II**, 50
- Piedmont** (pêd'mônt), 93, 94-95, 150
- Pilgrims**, 54-56, 55*
- Pioneers**, 94*-95, 108-112, 139*-143, 140*, 141*, 142*
- Pittsburgh**, 138, 143
- Pizarro, Francisco** (pî-zâr'-rô, frân-sê'skô), 22-24, 217; map, 10
- Plantations**: in South America, 41; southern colonies, 53, 72-73, 77, 98-100
- Plow**, 242*-245, 243*
- Plymouth** (plîm'ûth), 54-56
- Plymouth Company**, 71
- Pocahontas** (pô'kâ-hôn'-tâs), 51, 52-53
- Polk, James K.** (pôk), 163
- Polo, Maffeo**, 7-9
- Polo, Marco**, 8*-9, 14; map, 6
- Polo, Nicolo**, 7-9
- Ponce de Leon** (pôn'sâ dâ lâ-ôn'), 26-27; map, 28-29
- Pony express**, 207-208; map, 192-193
- Pope, the**, 24-25
- Portages**, 83-85, 87*
- Portolá, Gaspar de** (pôr-tô-lâ', gâs-pâr'dâ), 177-179, 178*
- Port Royal**, 77
- Port Royal, Acadia**, 83, 92
- Portugal** (pôr'tû-gâl): colonies, 25, 43 (map), 45, 225-226; exploration, 11-13, 14, 25, 25 (map)
- Power**, 240, 242, 245, 247, 248, 259
- Powhatan** (pou'hâ-tân'), 51, 53
- President, powers of**, 128
- Presidio**, (prê-sîd'î-ô), 179; map, 178
- Printing press**, 11*, 22, 83
- Prophet, the**, 147
- Proprietors**, 71
- Providence** (prôv'î-dêns), R. I., 57
- Pueblo** (pwă'blô), 34-35*
- Puritans**, 56-57, 61
- Quakers** (kwāk'êrs), 68-70
- Quebec** (kwê-bêk'), 53, 83, 85, 96, 112-113
- Quebec Act**, 113
- Quesada, Jiménez de** (kâ-sâ'dâ, hê-mâ'nâs dâ), 218
- Quivera** (kê-vê'râ), 35-36
- Radio**, 238, 239, 254*, 255
- Radisson** (rà-dê-son'), 86, 93
- Railroads**, 160*-161, 171*, 205-206, 208-209*, 210, 238; map, 192-193
- Raleigh, Sir Walter** (ró'îl), 49-50, 82
- Reaper**, 238*, 244*-245*
- Religion, freedom of**: the Calverts, 61; in Colonies, 115; crusades, 5-7; German settlers, 70; guaranteed by Constitution, 129; Hooker, Thomas, 57-58; Huguenots, 44-45; Hutchinson, Anne, 57; Pilgrims, 54-55; Puritans, 56; Quakers, 68-70; Williams, Roger, 56-57
- Repeal of a law**, 118
- Revere, Paul** (rê-vê'r'), 120
- Revolution, American**: campaigns of, 121, 123-125*, 123 (map); causes of, 111-119; condition of army, 120-121*, 124*; fighting begins in Massachusetts, 120; invasion of Canada, 121; need for a new flag, 125-126; surrender at Yorktown, 125; Washington appointed commander in chief, 120

- Rice**, 76-77, 90
- Rio Grande** (rē'ō grān'dā), 35, 163-164, 176
- Roads**, 96, 136-137 (map), 138, 139*-140, 141, 142, 158-159, 170-171
- Roanoke** (rō'ā-nōk'), 50, 70
- Roanoke River**, 70
- Rocky Mountain Fur Company**, 194-195
- Rolfc, John** (rōlf), 52
- Ross, Betsy**, 125
- Ross, Fort**, 181, 199
- Russia** (rūsh'ā), 92, 135, 181, 232, 233; routes of explorers, 84 (map)
- Russian-American Fur Company**, 181
- Sacajawea** (sä-kä'jä-wā'ä), 184-185
- Sagres** (sä'grēz), 12-13*
- St. Augustine** (sānt ó'gūs-tēn'), Fla., 44*, 45
- St. Lawrence River** (sānt lō-rēns), 37, 83, 234
- St. Louis** (sānt lōō'is), 154
- Salt Lake City**, 202*
- Samoset** (sām'ō-sēt), 55
- San Francisco** (sān frān-sīs-kō), 181, 204*
- San Francisco Bay**, 178-179
- San Martín, Jose de** (sān mār-tēn', hō-sā'dā), 224-225*; map, 222
- Santa Anna**, 163, 190-191
- Santa Fe** (sān'tā fā'), 172, 176*
- Santa Fe Trail**, 197-198, 200; map, 174
- Santa Maria**, 14, 16
- Sans Souci** (sōn sōō-sē'), 227
- Santiago** (sān-tē-ä'gō), 227
- Santo Domingo** (sān'tō dō-mēng'gō), 228
- Schools**: frontier, 165; modern, 266-267; New England colonies, 103-104; southern colonies, 99-100
- Scotland**, 72
- Scottish-Irish settlers**, 81, 95
- Sea otters**, 181*, 182
- Senate**, 127, 156
- Serra, Father Junípero** (sēr'-rā, hōō-nē'pā-rō), 177, 179
- Seven Years' War**, 95-96, 109, 138, 139
- Shipbuilding**, 79*-80
- Ships**: *Clermont*, 153*; *Columbia*, 134*; Columbus' ships, 14, 15*; English ship, 47*; flatboats, 143, 144*; "Old Ironsides," 149*; steamboats, 131*, 153*; trading ships, 101*, 133*, 134*; Viking ships, 5*
- Shiver**, 18, 21, 42
- Slavery**, 53, 72, 75, 81, 98, 100, 151; abolished, 167; begins in New World, 42, 47; forbidden in territories, 146, 156-157
- Smith, Jedediah**, 195-197; map, 174
- Smith, John**, 51, 54
- Soda Springs**, 199
- South America**: description of, 216*, 217*, 218-219; British in, 221; exploration of, 19, 22-24, 217-218; government of, 221, 226; influence of Spain in, 43, 220-221; languages of, 216; Portuguese settlements in, 25; reached by Columbus, 16; revolution in, 221-226, 222 (map); Spanish settlements in, 18, 24-25, 40*-44, 41*
- South Carolina**, 71, 75-78
- Southwest**: boundary agreements, 136-137 (map), 163-164, 202; exploration of, 32-36, 49, 172-179; life in, 180*, 182*; settlement of, 135, 176-180, 178 (map)
- Spain** (spān): colonies, 16, 17-18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 32-33, 40*-45, 41*, 43 (map), 44*, 84 (map), 109-110, 135, 175-180, 217-225; explorations, 14-16, 18-25, 25 (map), 26-36, 172-179, 217-218; relations with France, 96, 144; sale of Florida, 150; trade with colonies, 47; trouble with England, 47-49, 50
- Spalding, Henry H.**, 199
- Spanish-American War**, 229
- Spice Islands**, 17, 20, 26, 45
- Spices**, 7, 17, 18, 81
- Spinning machine**, 152
- Spinning wheel**, 63*, 74*, 97, 240
- Squanto** (skwōn'tō), 55*-56
- Stagecoaches**, 96-97*, 158-159, 170*, 206*-207
- Stamp Act**, 117-118
- Star-Spangled Banner**, 148
- States**: admitted to Union, 141, 147, 149, 154, 160, 163, 206; after war with Mexico, 164, 202; Confederate, 165; differences between North and South, 164-165; free and slave, 156-157, 164-165; the Gadsden Purchase, 164; Louisiana Territory, 144-145; Ordinance of 1787, 146; purchase of Florida, 150; recognized as world power, 149; rights under Constitution, 126-129; thirteen colonies become, 122-125; by treaty with England, 203; by treaty with Indians, 205; by treaty with Spain, 189. *See also* War between the States; War of 1812
- Steamboats**, 131*, 153*-154, 238
- Steam Engine**, 135, 247, 248
- Strait of Magellan** (mā-jél'-ān), 20*
- Stuyvesant, Peter** (stī'vē-sānt), 60
- Sutter, John Augustus**, 199, 203
- Swedish colonies**, 59-60, 68
- Taxes**, 113-114, 117-119
- Taylor, Zachary**, 163

- Tecumseh** (tê-kûm'sê), 147, 149
- Telegraph**, 207-208, 250-252
- Telephone**, 239, 254
- Television**, 239
- Tennessee** (tên'ê-sê'), 140, 141
- Texas** (têk'sás): founding of, 176; in Mexican War, 163-164, 202; revolution, 162-163, 190-191; settlement of, 162, 189-190
- Thirteenth Amendment**, 262
- Thompson, David**, 186*-187*; map, 174
- Time charts**, 38, 62, 105, 130, 167-168, 173, *See also* inside covers 213-214, 230, 268
- Tippecanoe** (tip'ê-kâ-nôô'), battle of, 147
- Tobacco**, 52*, 61, 72-73, 74, 78
- Tonty, Henri de**, 89-90
- Town meetings**, 105
- Tractor**, 238*
- Trade**, 46; by Americans in California, 182-183; with China, 134; colonial, 52, 66, 74-81, 82-83, 116-117; early European, 4-5; eastern, 9-11; between England and Spanish colonists, 47; French and Indians, 53, 86-88*; with Indians for land, 61, 69, 110; influence of railroad on, 161; on Mississippi, 143-144; by New Englanders, 157-158; Parliament and colonial, 116-119; on Santa Fe Trail, 198; by Spanish with Philippines, 175. *See also* Fur trade; Slavery
- Transportation**, 238-239; airplane, 248-250; automobile, 246-248; canoe, 87; Conestoga wagon, 142*-143, 159; covered wagon, 169*, 171*, 202*, 208*; Erie Canal, 158-159*, 159-160; in Far West, 203, 212; flatboats, 143, 144*; horses, 143; Indian trails, 75; pioneer trails, 94; pony express, 207-208; post roads, 96; railroads, 160*-161, 171*, 205-206, 208-209*; river boats, 97; stagecoach, 96-97*, 158-159, 170*; steamboat, 131*, 153*-154; in Westward Movement, 141-142. *See also* Roads
- Treaty**, 93
- Turnpike road**, 142-143
- United States, territorial expansion of**: Florida bought from Spain, 150; the Gadsden Purchase, 164, 206; Louisiana Purchase, 144-145; Ordinance of 1787, 146; through Oregon boundary settlements, 203; peace treaty after Revolution, 125; by treaty with Indians, 205; by treaty with Spain, 189; by war with Mexico, 163-164, 202; maps, 136-137, 192-193
- Valdivia, Pedro de** (vâl-dê'-vyâ, pâ'drô dâ), 217-228
- Valley Forge**, 124*
- Vancouver, Fort**, 188
- Vancouver, George**, 162, 182
- Vasco da Gama** (vâs'kô dâ gâ'mä), 25; maps, 6, 25
- Venezuela** (vên'ê-zwê'lâ), 221-224
- Vermont** (vêr-mônt'), 141
- Vespucci, Amerigo** (vêspôôt'chê), 16, 217
- Vikings**, 2, 4, 5*, 14
- Virginia** (vûr-jîn'yâ): first slaves brought to, 53; named by Queen Elizabeth, 50; new charter, 53; settlement of, 50
- Vizcaino, Sebastián** (vêz'-kâ-ê'nô, sâ-bâs-tyân'), 175, 178
- Voyageurs** (vwâ'yâ'zhûr'), 85
- War between the States**, 164-167
- War for Independence**. *See* Revolution, American
- War of 1812**, 147-150, 233-234
- Wars for Independence, South American**, 221-225; map, 222
- Washington, D. C.** (wôsh'-îng-tân), 132-133
- Washington, George**: at Continental Congress, 119, 126; in French and Indian War, 95-96; as president, 129; in the Revolution, 120-121, 123-124
- Watling Island** (wôt'ling), 15
- Watt, James**, 135
- Wayne, Anthony**, 146-147
- Welsh settlers**, 81
- West, The**: boundary agreements, 163-164, 188, 202-203; definition of, 171. *See also* Oregon country; Southwest
- Westward Movement**, 93-95, 94*, 108-112, 135-147, 158-164, 170-171
- Whaling**, 157*
- Wheat**, 199*, 212*, 241-245
- White, John**, 50
- Whitman, Dr. Marcus**, 199, 204-205
- Whitney, Eli**, 152
- Wilderness Road**, 139-140, 141
- Willamette Valley** (wî-lâm'-êt), 198, 200
- Williams, Roger**, 56-57
- Wolfe, James**, 96
- World**, events of history of the, 38, 62, 105, 130, 168, 214
- World Wars**, 235
- Wright brothers**, 249*
- York, town of**, 148
- York, Duke of**, 60, 67, 69
- Young, Brigham**, 201-202
- Yukon**, 234

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UNITED CANADA
UNITED STATES

LOYALISTS SETTLE IN CANADA

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WAR OF 1812

SLAVERY ABOLISHED IN
BRITISH EMPIRE

CONFEDERATION

FULTON'S "CLERMONT"

ELECTRICITY FROM
HYDRO

BELL'S TELEPHONE

WORLD WAR I

WORLD WAR II

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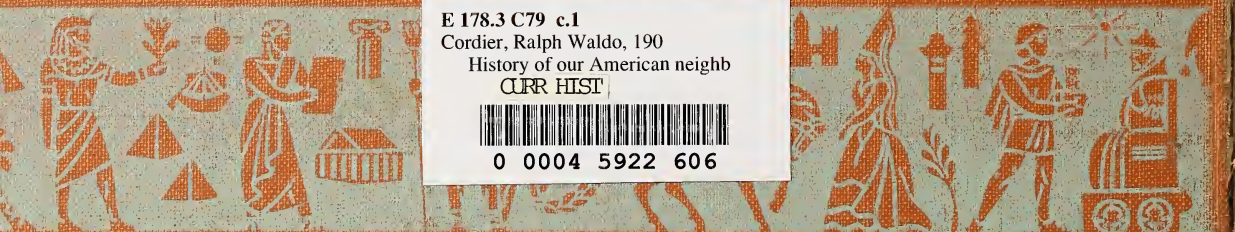
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